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RESEARCH POSSIBILITIES IN THE 1940 CENSUS

PHILIP M. HAUSER

Bureau of the Census

THE SIXTEENTH Decennial Census of Population, taken as of April 1, 1940, is the sesquicentennial census of the United States, representing, as it does, the culmination of 150 years of national census taking in this country. A study of the inquiries in each of the sixteen censuses and the statistics resulting therefrom could well be used in writing a history of the United States. In the inquiries which appear on the Population Schedule and in the data presented in the successive series of census volumes, one can trace the development of this nation from its primarily agricultural economy, with its town organization and its relatively homogeneous population, to its contemporary industrialized, urbanized state, its complex interdependent economic structure, and its heterogeneous population.

During the years, the Census has expanded in purpose and in scope so as far to transcend its original constitutional function with respect to apportionment and taxation. The inquiries which have appeared on the Population Schedule have from decade to decade reflected the more important and pressing problems of the day, the import or solution of which was to a considerable extent dependent upon a gathering of the facts. The Population Schedule for the 1940 Census has this in common with its predecessors and many of the new opportunities for sociological research which lie in the 1940 Census data in large part stem from the new inquiries designed to throw light on contemporary national problems. Included among the questions on the Population Schedule are important new inquiries relating to employment and unemployment status, income, internal migration, fertility, education, housing, and social security coverage.

Research opportunities, however, also lie in the more detailed tabulation and cross tabulation planned of standard Census questions such as those relating to age, sex, and color, and value or rent of home; in the presentation of more detailed data for smaller areas; and in the more extensive tabulation and presentation of statistics for what can be termed natural as distinguished from administrative or political areas—that is, of more detailed statistics for metropolitan districts and “subregions.”

With this general introduction, it may be well to proceed to a consideration of some of the more specific types of sociological research opportunities which the Sixteenth Decennial Census of Population will create. The discussion which follows, because of space limitations, assumes acquaintance with the 1940 Population and Housing Schedules; and attempts to outline research opportunities in some of the more important fields of current sociological investigation.

Vital Statistics. The 1940 population data will open up many new avenues of investigation in the field of vital statistics. For one thing, the basic information relating to the age, sex, and color of the population will be presented in greater detail than has ever previously been done for small areas, that is, for townships, counties, individual cities of 2500 or more inhabitants, and for the rural farm and rural nonfarm portions of each county. Statistics will be tabulated for townships, cross-classifying the population by sex and age (age in 10-year intervals), and by sex and color with nativity of white persons. The county data will be tabulated by 5-year age periods, from 0 to 75 years of age, for each sex, color, and white nativity group. It is obvious that such data should make possible more refined studies of fertility, mortality, and morbidity, and, incidentally, of other social and economic rates in which population statistics are used as a base.

Second, the 1940 Population Schedule provided for the collection of data on a sample basis relating to the total number of children ever born, and included, also, the age of mother at marriage and number of marriages so that the duration of marriage could be controlled. A special card is to be punched for each woman 15 years of age and over, which will make possible for the same universe of women, a detailed analysis of three commonly used indexes of fertility whose relationships are not too well known or understood, namely, number of children ever born, number of the woman's children at the time of the census, and the ratio of the total number of children under 5 years of age to the total number of women of childbearing age. The data based on the number of children ever born will permit studies of childlessness and prolificacy in families with completed fertility; and the children of the woman living with her husband will be classified into two age classes—under 5 and under 10—which will make possible some analysis of fertility during the first half and last half of the past decade.

The fertility punch-card will include such other factors as economic status (measured by equivalent monthly rental, wages of husband, wages of family, presence or absence of nonwage income, weeks worked during the year by husband, occupation of husband, work status of husband in the week preceding the census date, work status and occupation of the woman in the week preceding the census date), education of woman, education of husband, migration of woman during the 5-year period studied, birthplace of woman, birthplace of parents of woman, birth and mother tongue of

woman, age of husband, and, of course, age of woman, marital status, and age at marriage. Sufficient cross tabulation of these various items is planned in connection with each of the indexes of fertility mentioned so as to permit analysis which, considering both coverage and intensity, will be unparalleled in American fertility studies. Particularly is this true because the Census Bureau is also sponsoring a fertility study, through the W.P.A., based on the 1910 Population Schedule, in which the question relating to children ever born was also included. This study will result in a punch-card paralleling in all respects possible the 1940 fertility punch-card, and, thus, in addition to separate investigations of differential fertility in 1940 and 1910, it will be possible to make rather detailed comparative studies indicating changes in differential fertility which have occurred in the course of a generation. It is worth mentioning that in presenting the fertility data, it is planned to publish not only the raw statistics resulting from the tabulations but also summary figures such as gross and net reproduction rates. Such rates are to be computed for the various social and economic strata of the population on an unprecedented scale.

Finally, with respect to research in vital statistics, a special Infant Card was prepared for each infant under three months of age reported on the census schedule with a view to matching these cards with birth and death certificates. The results of this study, pursued cooperatively by the Vital Statistics, Research, and the Population Divisions of the Bureau, should be of considerable value in fields of investigation where completeness of registration or enumeration of infants is an important factor and probably will result in interesting studies of differential fertility and infant mortality.

Internal Migration. Two migration tabulations are planned. The first is designed to show not only the extent of in- and out-migration for approximately 325 areas (including cities of 100,000 and over, metropolitan districts of 250,000 and over, and the balance of the state classified by cities under 100,000, rural farm and rural nonfarm), but also considerable detail on the characteristics of in- and out-migrants. The data to be presented on the characteristics of migrants will include age, sex, color, whether head or nonhead of household, education, work status, and broad occupational groups. The proposed second tabulation will be restricted to in-migrants only, for states, cities of 100,000 and over, and subregions of states further subclassified by city-size groups, rural farm, and rural nonfarm areas. For this tabulation, it is also planned to provide statistics on the characteristics of the in-migrants. The migration data should make possible a number of studies of differentials in mobility; of social and economic factors making for migration in areas of out- and in-migration, respectively; and of the characteristics of migrants, in relation to the characteristics of the populations from which and to which they move. There has been until this Census a woeful lack of data on internal population movements. The 1940 migration

tabulations will open up new fields of research in this country calling for careful and mature investigation and promising ample rewards.

It may be mentioned that, as an important byproduct of the internal migration tabulation, it may be possible to reconstruct the population of the states and other areas as of April 1, 1935, as a result of which intercensal estimates of population may be materially improved. The implications for research of the improved population estimates which may result from the migration data are manifest.

Human Ecology. New and broader ecological studies will be possible with the statistics presented in the 1940 Population Census than were possible with the data of any of the previous censuses. New studies in the field of human ecology should result not only from the data representing the new inquiries on the schedule but also from the greater amount of detail to be presented for townships, counties, cities, and metropolitan districts; from the housing data to be presented by city blocks in all cities containing 50,000 inhabitants or more in 1930; from population and housing data to be presented by tracts in an increased number of tracted cities; and from the data to be presented by new subregions within states, designed by O. E. Baker and Leon E. Truesdell primarily for internal migration tabulations.

For the rural sociologist, new analytical opportunities will lie in the greater amount of detail described above to be presented for townships. Furthermore, the rural sociologist, and also other sociologists, will find a mine of analytical work possible in the data which are to be presented for the subregions within states. The country has been divided into approximately 328 subregions consisting of counties relatively homogeneous with respect to topography, type of soil, crop, industrial organization, and population type. The data which are to be tabulated for counties will be summarized for these subregions which, in turn, can be combined into larger cultural or economic areas such as those represented by the Coastal Plain, the Appalachian Mountain Area, the Cotton Belt, the Cut-over Region, the Dust Bowl, etc. Such data should result in an increase in the quality and quantity of regional studies and permit comparative and analytical treatment of data by independent investigators not normally equipped to handle the mass of county statistics.

Students in the field of urban sociology will find unparalleled statistics available for ecological studies of the city in the block data to be made available for all cities of 50,000 or more inhabitants in 1930. The block data, emanating from the Housing Census taken in conjunction with the Population Census, will include equivalent average rent, tenure, mortgage status, age of dwelling unit, number of persons per room, and state of repair and plumbing facilities. These data will be summarized by tracts in tract cities, by wards in untraced cities, and, in conjunction with the other census tract

data to be made available, will permit intensive study of small areas within the urban community.

The Census, for the first time, will publish standard tract statistics for all tracted cities. In addition to the tract summary housing block data referred to above, census publications will include separate city bulletins containing tract statistics relating to the age, sex, and color composition of the population, highest grade of school completed, employment status, major occupation groups, country of birth of foreign-born white, citizenship, tenure and occupancy status of dwelling units, value and estimated rent of owned homes, contract rent and gross rent (rent plus cost of utilities) for tenant-occupied homes, size of household, number of persons per room, and data relating to plumbing and other facilities.

The number of tract cities has increased from 17 in 1930 to 59 in 1940 (not including six adjoining areas of cities). It is apparent that the publication of uniform tract statistics in some detail for as many as 59 cities, in volumes to be made available through the Government Printing Office at nominal cost, will result in an important mass of data for analytical purposes. In addition, cities which wish to do so may provide for even more detailed tract statistics, but the minimum data indicated in the standard tables will insure uniformity in the tract statistics for all tracted cities in the country. Standard census tract statistics should, in addition to the usual local use of such data, result in more extensive comparative studies which may prove useful for purposes of generalization.

Also of considerable importance to students of urban sociology will be the extension of the data to be made available for metropolitan districts. Statistics relating to employment status of persons in the labor force, activities during the census week of persons not in the labor force, education, school attendance, age (by 5-year classes), and condensed occupational and industry groups for employed workers will be made available in early tabulations for the population classified by sex, color, and nativity of white persons. Thus, it will be possible to study more intensively than ever before the economic and social interrelationships of the central district and its outlying area as revealed by the characteristics of their populations.

The Family. Among the important innovations in the 1940 Census of Population are the new types of family data to be made available. Two punch-cards are planned, tentatively, for the tabulation of family statistics. One, designed to be run on a 100 percent basis for population, if funds permit, is a joint housing and household card for the correlation of housing and family population statistics (Card F). Although this card contains important housing data (such as condition of housing and plumbing facilities, type of structure, number of rooms, tenure, and number of persons per room, as well as tenure and value or rent), it also includes new types of family information, as for example, number of related employed workers,

related emergency workers, related workers seeking work, total number of related workers, family wages, absence or presence of other family income, weeks worked by the head, work status of the head, and migration of the head. In addition to this card, a card will be punched for every head of a household included in the 5-percent sample of the population from which information in addition to that on the regular schedule was obtained (Card D). This card includes more detailed classifications of some of the items contained on the card already described above (Card F) and other items of information having their source partly in the sample inquiries and partly in the main body of the schedule. Among the items to be included are the grade completed by the head, age of the wife as well as age of the head, work status and occupational group of the wife, number of children under ten and number of children under 18, number of children 14 to 17 years of age in the labor force by labor force status, duration of family unemployment, class of worker of the head and other members of the family, weeks worked by the head, wages earned by the first earner and the second earner as well as total family wages, the number of earners in the family, the presence or absence of other income, and the number of persons over 65 years of age. These items tabulated individually and in cross-classification will make possible more detailed study of family composition in its social and economic aspects than has ever before been possible for the nation as a whole. It may be expected that the analyst will find ample reward for his labors in working with the 1940 family statistics.

Economic and Social Indexes. Practically all sociological investigations have some occasion to utilize indexes of the social and economic status of the populations studied. Indexes of economic status or cultural level are among the more important of the variables ordinarily controlled in the study of group or community differentials. The 1940 Population Census contains more data than any previous census that can be used as indexes of economic or cultural level or planes of living. In addition to the highly successful rent and value data introduced for the first time in the 1930 Census, the 1940 Census will make available statistics on gross rent, that is, rent plus the cost of utilities, and estimated rental value of owned homes.

Individual and family income statistics will also be available from the 1940 Census. It will be possible to utilize these data as direct indexes of economic status for wage workers and wage worker families without other forms of income, and also, to study the relationship between wage income and rent. For families whose sole income is derived from wages, the relationship of income to rent may be useful in predicting the income of other families, especially if other factors such as occupation, age of head, size of family, education, etc., are controlled. The number of weeks worked during the year by all persons 14 years of age and over, hours worked during the week preceding the census date and duration of employment, may also

prove to be useful indexes of economic status of the person, of the family, and of the community.

Data will be made available for small areas (including counties, cities of 2500 and over, rural farm and rural nonfarm parts of counties, census tracts), for metropolitan districts, and subregions showing the broad occupational groups in the employed portion of the labor force. These occupational groupings, roughly comparable to Edwards' social-economic groupings, will be extremely useful in comparative studies for differentiating population groups and areas. The industrial classification of employed workers in the labor force also to be tabulated may be of further value.

Another important index of economic level will be afforded by the employment status statistics which will be made for the areas described above. These data will show workers in the labor force classified by whether employed, seeking work, or on public emergency work. Persons seeking work will be further classified by whether experienced or new workers.

Still another important index of social and cultural level will be afforded by the data on the highest grade of school completed. Median years of school completed and percentage of persons with less than five years of schooling may be important indexes of the cultural level of communities. Furthermore, the extent of in- and out-migration, the difference between usual and present occupation, the percentage of the population living in the same house for the 5-year period studied, the condition of the house, the presence or absence of specified housing facilities, and mortgage finance data may also prove to be important social indexes of communities.

The use of these various indexes separately and in combination should permit much more intensive and extensive studies of social phenomena in which it is important to control economic or social level. There will be ample opportunity for the investigator to exercise ingenuity in the interpretation and the use of these various indexes.

Methodology. Finally, some mention should be made of the methodological innovations of the 1940 Census because a number of devices designed for the Census may have wide application and general research utility.

The method devised for combining a complete enumeration of the population with a sampling procedure to obtain additional information which could not otherwise be obtained within limited time and funds can easily be adapted to local schedule investigations. In brief, this method insures the elimination of various types of biases associated with the sample selection, of names on a line schedule. It is described in detail in an article by Stephan, Deming, and Hansen.¹

Also of considerable general methodological value will be the method devised by Deming and Stephan, through an extension of least squares, for the

¹ Frederick F. Stephan, W. Edwards Deming, and Morris H. Hansen, "The Sampling Procedure of the 1940 Population Census," *J. Amer. Statist. Assn.*, Dec. 1940, 615-630.

inflation of sample data to known universe rims. This problem arises when inquiries for which data have been collected on a 100 percent basis are subdivided in more detail by sample cross classifications. The question arises how to estimate the subclasses of the universe, from the sample data and the universe rims. An illustration posing the problem is exhibited in Figs. 1 and 2.

FIGURE 1. SHOWING THE KNOWN FREQUENCIES OF THE SAMPLE AND UNIVERSE.

10053	2962	7091	202965	60942	142023
2593	786	1807	52727	?	?
7460	2176	5284	150238	?	?
Sample			Universe		

The cell frequencies of the sample are known from cross classification.

The rim totals of the universe are known, but not the cell frequencies.

FIGURE 2. SHOWING THE RESULT OF ADJUSTING THE SAMPLE OF FIGURE 1 TO THE GIVEN UNIVERSE RIMS.¹

202965	60942	142023
52727	16283	36444
150238	44659	105579

The Adjusted Sample

¹ This adjustment is ordinarily reached in three stages, as it was in this instance.

Figure 1 shows a sample frequency table, the cells being the result of cross-tabulating a sample survey. The universe rims have been determined, possibly by a count carried on simultaneously with the sample coverage. The universe cell frequencies are unknown and the problem is to estimate them from the sample in accordance with statistical theory and in such a manner that the rim totals of the estimates will agree with the known values of the universe. The details of the method of adjustment, which has been reduced to simple clerical operations, are described in an article by Deming and Stephan.²

Many other methodological innovations in field procedure, in schedule design, in operating instructions, in definitions, in the elimination of the category "unknown age," in tabulation procedures, and in the use of sampling methods, are worthy of detailed examination by investigators working with mass schedule data.

Concluding Remarks. It is impossible within the allotted space fully to enumerate the various ways in which the 1940 Census data can be utilized for sociological research. It may be concluded, however, that even this brief discussion makes it clear that the 1940 Census abounds in opportunities for sociological research, and that the skilled and ingenious investigator can blaze many new trails not only in descriptive and statistical monographic study, but also, let us hope, in the development of basic and fundamental conceptual frameworks firmly based on quantitative data.

² W. Edwards Deming and Frederick F. Stephan, "On a Least Squares Adjustment of a Sampled Frequency Table," *Ann. Math. Statist.*, Dec. 1940, 427-444.

THE IMPLICATIONS OF PREDICTION IN SOCIOLOGY*

WALTER C. RECKLESS

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THE MAJOR scientific interest in the study of social problems has been focused principally on causation. It is now becoming apparent in sociological research, at least, that causative factors are very elusive things and are not satisfactorily handled. Perhaps the etiology of the particular social problems which sociologists study will largely remain speculative and undetermined. Perhaps causation is not very applicable to the study of social problems in the first place.

If the emphasis on causation is deflated, one might ask, not what our social problems texts will do, but what truly scientific considerations will be left for the sociological study of social problems? There would remain still a large body of shrewd and better-than-commonsense insights into the nature and characteristics of social problems.¹ There would remain a slight residue from an interest in behavior sequences or processes, such as may be used to describe the development of criminal attitudes and techniques, the progressive slump to lower levels (demoralization), the mounting tensions of family conflict, and so forth.² The interest in interaction or behavior sequences has shown a considerable growth but is still largely a matter of qualitative analysis from special cases.

There would remain also the contributions from the spatial studies. The rebirth of the 100-year old cartographic method, under the miscast name of "ecological approach," has yielded many valuable clues as to the variation in intensity of reported incidence of social problems in unit areas. However, the validity of these spatial studies has been seriously questioned.³

* Presented to the Social Statistics Section of the American Sociological Society, Chicago, December 29, 1940.

¹ One of the newest and most realistic approaches to a sociology of social problems, although based preliminarily on general observation, is that developed by Richard C. Fuller. According to this approach, a social problem becomes one through definition and awareness. See "The Problems of Teaching Social Problems," *Amer. J. Sociol.*, 44: 415-425, 1938; also "Sociological Theory and Social Problems," *Social Forces*, 496-502, 1937; *An Outline of the Principles of Sociology*, Robert E. Park (ed.), 3-19, 1939.

² See for example Harriet Mowrer, *Personality Adjustment and Domestic Discord*, New York, 1935; L. S. Cottrell, "Roles and Marital Adjustment," *Publ. Amer. Sociol. Soc.*, 27: 107-115, May 1933; Walter C. Reckless, *Criminal Behavior*, 140-162, New York, 1941; Walter C. Reckless, "Juvenile Delinquency and Behavior Patterning," *J. Educ. Sociol.*, 10: 493-505, April 1937; Walter C. Reckless, "Vice and Personal Disorganization," *J. App. Sociol.*, 11: 134-138, 1926; Paul G. Cressey, *The Taxi-Dance Hall*, Chap. V, "The Life Cycle of the Taxi-Dancer," Chicago, 1932; Clifford R. Shaw, *The Jack Roller*, Chicago, 1930, *The Natural History of a Delinquent Career*, Chicago, 1931, *Brothers in Crime*, Chicago, 1938; E. H. Sutherland, "Social Process in Behavior Problems," *Publ. Amer. Sociol. Soc.*, 26: 55-61, 1932; E. H. Sutherland and Chic Conwell, *The Professional Thief*, Chicago, 1937.

³ See Robert E. Chaddock, "Significance of Infant Mortality Rates for Small Geographic

What about inadequate and inconsistent registration of cases? What about the variation in the size and selection of unit areas? What about the influence of nonresident cases? Of these several challenges, the one which seems to be most insurmountable is the one which insists that fortuitous registration of cases makes it impossible for a series to be used as a reliable volume indicator in time and place. No matter what the present shortcomings and future status of spatial studies may be, the so-called ecological approach represents an honest effort on the part of sociologists to have something scientific to say about reported social problems.

In view of a frustrated etiology of social problems, the unverified although interesting analysis of behavior processes, and the unsettled condition of the spatial studies, one might propose that sociologists cultivate the actuarial study of social problems, which might indicate the risk of various categories of people for becoming officially reported to various case registration agencies and which might indicate even more certainly the statistical chances of various types of reported cases to be reported again or not reported again (i.e., unsuccessful and successful outcome). Sociologists have already made a respectable beginning in prediction of outcome.⁴

The proposal for the cultivation of actuarial studies of social problems can be pushed further. For when one gazes into the crystal at present, he sees no other approaches in the offing with good scientific possibilities. Consequently, one might say that the actuarial approach is the main hope for sociologists to have something demonstrable to say about social problems.

However, the promise of the application of actuarial methods to the study of social problems does not lie in prediction of absolute, tangible, or

Areas," *J. Amer. Statist. Assn.*, vol. 29, no. 187, Sept. 1934; Frank A. Ross, "Ecology and the Statistical Method," *Amer. J. Sociol.*, 38: 507-522, January 1933; Sophia M. Robison, *Can Delinquency be Measured?*, New York, 1936; Milla Aissa Alihan, *Social Ecology*, New York, 1938; R. Clyde White, "The Relation of Felonies to Environmental Factors in Indianapolis," *Social Forces*, 10: 498-509, May 1932; Donald R. Taft, "Testing the Selective Influence of Areas of Delinquency," *Amer. J. Sociol.*, 38: 704-708, March 1933; Charles C. Peters, "Note on a Misconception of Statistical Significance," *Amer. J. Sociol.*, 39: 231-236, 1933; Robert Faris and H. Warren Dunham, *Mental Disorders in Urban Areas*, 160-169, Chicago, 1939; Thorsten Sellin, "The Basis of Crime Index," *J. Crim. Law and Criminol.*, 22: 339-346, 1931-1932; Thorsten Sellin, *Research Memorandum on Crime in the Depression*, Chap. 4, "The Index Question," New York, 1937.

⁴ Ernest W. Burgess, in Andrew A. Bruce, et al., *The Workings of the Indeterminate Sentence Law and the Parole System in Illinois*, 221-249, Springfield, Ill., 1928; Clark Tibbitts, "Success or Failure on Parole Can be Predicted," *J. Crim. Law and Criminol.*, 22: 11-50, 1931; Sheldon and Eleanor Glueck, *Five Hundred Criminal Careers*, New York, 1930, *Five Hundred Delinquent Women*, New York, 1934, *One Thousand Juvenile Delinquents*, Cambridge, 1934, *Later Criminal Careers*, New York, 1937; *Juvenile Delinquents Grown Up*, New York, 1940; George B. Vold, *Prediction Methods and Parole*, Hanover, N. H., 1932; Ferris F. Laune, *Predicting Criminality*, Evanston, Ill., 1936; Ernest W. Burgess and Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr., "The Prediction of Adjustment in Marriage," *Amer. Sociol. Rev.*, 1: 737-751, 1936; *Predicting Success or Failure in Marriage*, New York, 1939; Edith M. H. Baylor and Elio D. Monachesi, *The Rehabilitation of Children*, Chap. 11, "The Prediction of the Child's Response to Care," New York, 1939.

corrected incidence but rather in the forecast of what category of persons has a better chance of being reported to an agency than another category of persons. Such a statement assumes that under the working rules, facilities, and definitions of the reporting agency or bureau, a certain class of individuals has more chance of becoming officially known than another class of individuals. Sociological forecasting is therefore concerned primarily with the indication of *who*, not *how many*. While volume trend line forecasting might be feasible in vital statistics where, in the instance of births and deaths, the total volume is approximated by registration, such forecasting is not possible in the study of such problems as crime, relief, unemployment, and so on, because of various degrees of partial registration and inconsistencies in coverage.⁵ The forecast of *who* is the most likely to be reported is a computation of categoric risk which holds for the cases covered and not for those not covered.

The actuarial approach as used to compute categoric risks depends on consistent reporting of cases and consistent recording of information. There must be assurances that the registration or reporting of cases covers about the same types of cases from year to year. Inconsistent reporting due to changes in policies, office rules, laws, or facilities is not an insurmountable difficulty when the volume index is not the principal consideration, because new categoric risks can be computed within the limits of the new coverage on cases. However, a fairly well stabilized coverage would be very convenient.

The reliability with which case information is recorded is also a serious limitation. The biases in giving unverified information, such as age, occupation, education, marital status, and so on, vary by individuals and categories.⁶ The errors of recording information are likewise great but are susceptible of reduction by training and care. Until improvements in accuracy of giving and recording information are made, the computation of risks must be made within limitations of accuracy and must be changed when it becomes known that the degree of accuracy in reporting has been

⁵ The chairman of the section Clark Tibbitts, made the following pertinent comments: "There are two considerations relevant to the matter of under-reporting. One is that certain specific types of cases may be selected in the under-reporting. See, for example, the recent studies of the Division of Vital Statistics of the Census Bureau which showed a relationship between family characteristics and the reporting of births and deaths. Certainly in some types of data there should be no selection. This ought to apply to records of marriage and divorce where under-reporting must be due to clerical carelessness rather than to other circumstances. The other question is that the amount of under-reporting might be assumed to be constant, or relatively so, from year to year. If such were the case, one could not predict total volume but he might predict fluctuations and at least study them after the manner of Ogburn, Dorothy Thomas, etc."

⁶ See, for example, the varying consistency with which certain categories of information were reported for the same cases in two separate recording agencies as found by Edwin H. Sutherland and C. C. Van Vechten, Jr., in "The Reliability of Criminal Statistics," *J. Crim. Law and Criminol.*, 25: 11-19, 1934-1935.

changed. On the other hand, studies can be made on what difference occurs in an expectancy table when the original entries of information from which the computations were made vary so much from a second or verified entry of information.

The information on agency records which sociologists must use for computation of risk is just about as good as the information which life insurance actuaries must use, that is, information from the applications of the insured, including even the medical examination and the inspection. No one would claim that the reporting of medical impairments in parents and siblings on the application sheet is better than the reporting of information in social agency records. No one would claim that the categories of information used in establishing the presence of medical impairments in the family are any more reliable than those used in the ordinary records of public institutions.

Take the matter of reporting tuberculosis, insanity, epilepsy, diabetes, hernia, gall bladder operations, and so on, for family members by the applicant. Or take the unverified reporting of the applicant's own medical impairments such as sugar in the urine within ten years; habits as to use of alcohol broken down into subcategories such as occasional excess, steady free user, reformed without treatment, taken cure and reformed since, taken cure but not total abstainer since; blood spitting (not for T. B.); nervous prostration lasting at least one month and within five years of examination, and so forth.⁷

There is no intention of making invidious comparisons between these sorts of data and those reported on records sociologists have to use. Without detailed point by point investigation, a comparative evaluation could be only a speculation. The fact is, however, that actuarial use can be made of the sort of data mentioned above, albeit they violate the canons of good reporting. An actuary can insist that he is computing the risk of persons who claim or profess to have no sugar in the urine for 10 years and to be only occasional users of alcohol. This is just what the sociologist, who turns to the actuarial approach, must claim in most instances where recorded information has not been verified—namely, that such computation obtains for those persons who profess such and such information.

At present, there are two possibilities for the computation of categoric risks in the sociological study of social problems. The first is the forecast of what classes of people are going to be reported to an agency or are going to become known to this agency. The other is the forecast of successful or unsuccessful outcome. Curiously enough, the latter type of categoric forecasting is taking the lead. The reason is, I believe, that both the unsuccessful

⁷ See the recommendations of the *Medico-Actuarial Mortality Investigation*, The Association of Life Insurance Medical Directors and the Actuarial Society of America, 1: 11-112, New York, 1912.

ful and the successful cases are included in the experience or sample. Another way to put the same reason is that all cases have been exposed to outcome (i.e., risk) and hence constitute an experience. This is analogous to the actuary's use of those dying and those exposed to risk among insured persons, i.e., policyholders. The computers of risks in success-or-failure outcome studies could very well consult the discriminations and separations made by actuaries in arriving at the number of policyholders exposed to risk at a given age of entry for various successive years of policy duration—in other words, consult the way "select" mortality tables among the insured are built.⁸

In the case of the computation of risk of various classes of people to become known to an agency, a different situation is apparent. Nonreliefers, for example, are not reported in the same file and by the same facilities as reliefers. In order to arrive at a statement of categoric liability, one has to go to extraneous sources, such as the Census, for an estimate of the non-reliefers. This is not very satisfactory because the reporting of information is done by separate agencies and at different times and because we do not know which of the individuals in the census are reliefers.

One practical way out of this difficulty might be for census schedules in sample communities to be cleared by family name through the local relief agencies for cases known to the agencies as new cases six months before and six months after the date of census. Until we are able to procure the clearance of census schedules with agency and institutional records, we will be seriously handicapped in working out predictions of what classes of persons are most likely to become known to the police, mental hospitals, family welfare societies, and so on.⁹ Consequently, for sometime to come the best outlook for prediction studies is in the field of computing categoric risks for unsuccessful or successful outcome rather than computing categoric risks for becoming known to an agency (and hence to become officially delinquent, insane, divorced, dependent, and so on).

From these considerations, therefore, it appears that when and if the sociological study of social problems embraces the actuarial approach, it will have more to say about factors leading to successful and unsuccessful outcome than it will about factors leading to the registration of cases with

⁸ See, for example, W. Palin Elderton and Richard C. Fippard, *The Construction of Mortality and Sickness Tables*, 12-27, London, 1914.

⁹ Tibbitts' comments at this point are also pertinent. "It seems to me that you are unduly pessimistic with reference to obtaining samples of the noncategorized population. The National Health Survey and the study of consumer purchases covered more than one million families together. These studies both included information with reference to relief status. Furthermore, these schedules could be cleared with various local records without much difficulty. In fact, we did clear a couple thousand of them with records of relief agencies to verify the relief recordings. Likewise, records of schools or of school children contain a good deal of family information as well as information about the youngsters. If such records were cleared with the files of correctional and welfare agencies, we should again have control groups."

an agency or institution (which is the same as official occurrence).¹⁰ This may not be quite as much of a blow as social pathologists might think. For example, through the actuarial study of parole outcome, one can shed light on the improbability or unimprovability of offenders under certain handling methods. A knowledge of this condition is certainly as important as the knowledge of what brings cases to official attention in the first place.¹¹

The foregoing considerations have assumed that risks would be computed from the types of categorized information usually appearing in agency and institutional records. Such information is for most part objective, referring to externally recognizable conditions such as sex, age, nativity, occupation, and so on. It is quite possible that this objective information will not yield the risk discriminations desired and that supplementary schedule information, covering subjective factors in a person's life and behavior may be required to give the socially important and statistically significant indexes of risk. Burgess in his marriage and Laune in his parole prediction studies have already added subjective factors to the schedule of information used for computation risk in outcome.

However, when data ordinarily not obtained in the usual operation of record keeping of agencies and institutions are demanded, a series of problems arise—knotty, but not unsolvable problems. In the first place, the agency staff probably must rely on the outside expert's interest in the research aspect of prediction to develop the supplementary schedule of information covering subjective factors. Assuming for the moment that a satisfactory supplementary schedule of information has been developed, the agency may need additional help in funds and manpower to get the information recorded in routine fashion. Research projectors are usually not able to supply this additional help over a period of years, although they might supply it for a short period.

It is no child's play to develop an instrument which will indicate the operationally important subjective factors in outcome and which at the same time will constitute an adequate predictive measure. All the work preliminary to Thurstone's factor analysis must be gone through in developing such an instrument. When the researcher has finished, he should have a validated test of subjective factors which in turn are significantly related

¹⁰ There is one exception to this statement which is due undoubtedly to initial procedure. Burgess' study of marital happiness represents a private recruitment of cases. At one and the same time, the Burgess investigation is a study of unofficial outcome and unofficial occurrence of marital happiness or unhappiness. While its major limitations are those of sampling, it has already yielded important clues for the study of marital discord which transcend the causative-factor and behavior-process approach of individual case analysis.

¹¹ I have borrowed the term of unimprovability from European criminologists, particularly Dr. Louis Vervaeck, who, among others, has sought to describe the characteristics of unimprovable criminals. See his article, "Gibt es Anhaltspunkte für die Unverbesserlichkeit des Verbrechers?" *Monatsschrift für Kriminalpsychologie und Strafrechtsreform*, 25: 444-449, 1934. Ferris Laune, as a result of his actuarial experience with parolees in Illinois, devised a test to test the "parolability" of an offender which is a general condition of improbability, albeit explained differently. See Laune's *Predicting Criminality*, 8, 52-65, 145-156, Evanston, 1936.

¹² The association to the theoretical mental correlation

to outcome in their variously measured degrees. The job of establishing a valid test of subjective factors is very much bigger than the job of using it in the computation of risk in outcome. It is quite likely that the most important predictive studies will have to await the development of better and more useful test of subjective factors, such as improvability, adjustability, sociability, dependability, and so on.

There is no reason, however, to neglect the use of the ordinarily reported objective items in the computation of risk for the exclusive use of predictive instruments which test the operation of subjective factors. Improvements in standardizing the reporting of objective information on agency records will undoubtedly have great repercussions for prediction studies as well as will the inclusion of new objective items of information in record coverage which are found to have predictive value. Just as much use should be made of the objective items in computation of risk as is possible to make until the limits of prediction with such data are discoverable.

In summary, it has been pointed out that (1) the actuarial approach is one which affords sociologists the opportunity to have something demonstrable to say about social problems; (2) by being interested in what classes of persons will become known to an agency, actuarial computations sidestep the difficulties confronting the prediction of total volume or incidence of cases; (3) actuarial methods operate effectively within the limits of agency facilities and coverage, although the results suffer somewhat from bad reporting of data; (4) the data reported in ordinary agency and institutional records are no more of a handicap to actuarial methods than are the data reported in the ordinary applications for life insurance; (5) actuarial use even can be made of data which are based on what the examinees profess to be true; (6) the outlook for prediction studies is brighter in the field of computation of categoric risks for successful and unsuccessful outcome than in the field of computation of categoric risks for persons to become known to an agency; and (7) valid tests of subjective factors may ultimately have to be developed to procure the really socially important indicators of risk in outcome.

One might say that the qualitative character of the items which are used to compute risks cannot, in and of itself, be considered as a serious handicap in actuarial studies. There are adequate statistical procedures for handling qualitative data which are subsumed under descriptive categories and subcategories,¹² and these procedures are just as adequate in their sphere as are the procedures for handling quantitatively reported data. Quantitative data can be as poorly reported and recorded as qualitative data are usually prejudged to be. Actually both quantitative and qualitative data have their degrees of good and bad reporting.

¹² The computation of risk from qualitative data is based on the statistical procedure of association of attributes. See, for example, G. Undy Yule and M. G. Kendall, *An Introduction to the Theory of Statistics*, 11th ed. rev., 34-81, London, 1937. Association of attributes is fundamental to the development of expectancy tables as well as to contingency and tetrachoric correlation.

AN EVALUATION OF RECENT MAJOR EFFORTS AT PREDICTION

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THE POSSIBILITY of predicting the course of human social behavior has served as an attractive goal to many social scientists. The extensive and remarkably accurate predictions made in the physical sciences have been objects of envy and admiration to social scientists. These achievements of the physical scientists are considered by some social scientists as impossible in the field of social relations and they point to the rather meager results which have been achieved in their field as proof of this opinion. Some social scientists have sought to justify the lack of accurate predictions in the social sphere by calling attention to the fact that social scientists deal with data that do not lend themselves to precise study. It has been comforting to know that the data one deals with are subjective, complicated, non-measurable, spiritual, etc. Data that are so perverse make predictions impossible. Fortunately, not all social scientists have been so easily satisfied. The results achieved in the physical sciences have served to many social scientists as an incentive to further study of social data with the end in view of being able to predict within reasonable limits of error the social behavior of man.

The pioneering studies of Burgess, the Gluecks, Vold, Tibbitts and others have demonstrated that some social phenomena are subject to some degree of observation so as to render some prediction possible. The work of these investigators has opened a field the exploration of which has just begun. The further intensive and systematic cultivation of this field should yield extremely significant results to social science.

Briefly stated, the work of these scholars is predicated on the assumption that human conduct in general is subject to scientific study which renders possible the classification of human beings and their behavior in more or less stable categories. Data that are thus derived may be used to forecast what will probably happen when certain types of human beings who possess specific characteristics are confronted with designated situations. In other words, studies in the field of social prediction attempt to record human experiences in some systematic form so as to utilize them for predicting future human conduct. The results of this procedure are usually presented in simple expectancy tables.

The early efforts of scholars in "social" prediction were in general confined to forecasting conduct in the field of crime. Thus Burgess¹ addressed

¹ A. A. Bruce, A. J. Harno, E. W. Burgess, and J. Landesco, *Parole and the Indeterminate Sentence*, Illinois State Board of Parole, 1928.

himself to the problem of predicting the conduct of offenders on parole. Vold² and Tibbitts³ were interested in the same problem. The Gluecks,⁴ on the other hand, extended their work so as to include the post-parole conduct of offenders. A few years later the Gluecks devised expectancy tables for the post-treatment conduct of juvenile delinquents⁵ and delinquent women.⁶ Monachesi⁷ investigated the possibility of applying prognostic techniques to probation treatment. All of these studies demonstrated that predictions of human behavior were not only possible but could be extremely useful if those whose task it is to administer criminal justice could be persuaded to make use of them.

The last five years have witnessed the further extension of prediction studies in the field of criminal behavior. In addition, attempts have been made to apply the prediction idea to such matters as marriage and the foster-home care of various categories of problem children. In this paper, we shall describe some of the more important studies made in these several fields as well as call attention to some of the problems, as yet unanswered which are raised in connection with the prediction of human behavior.

In 1935, Vold⁸ published the results of a study which involved an attempt to apply prediction methods to the problems connected with the individualization of treatment in correctional institutions. Vold was interested in finding out if it were possible to predict what type of treatment offered by an institution would best serve the needs of various categories of offenders. The study included 579 male offenders, 290 of which were inmates of the Massachusetts State Prison Colony at Norfolk and 289 of which were inmates of the Massachusetts State Prison at Charleston. The adjustment to prison life of each of these offenders was classified and then utilized as a basis for the analysis of a number of pre-incarceration factors in the lives of the offenders. The results of this analysis led to the construction of a prediction table which indicated that knowledge of certain factors in the pre-prison life of an offender could be used to predict his probable response to institutional treatment.

Vold's prediction table is based upon twenty-nine pre-prison factors and constructed by the Burgess scoring method. Vold experimented with the Glueck scoring method and found that the results obtained were quite similar to those obtained with the Burgess method. Furthermore, Vold tried

² George B. Vold, *Prediction Methods and Parole*, Hanover, New Hampshire, 1931.

³ Clark Tibbitts, "Success or Failure on Parole Can Be Predicted," *Crim. Law and Criminol.*, 22: 11-50, May 1931.

⁴ Sheldon and Eleanor T. Glueck, *500 Criminal Careers*, New York, 1930.

⁵ Sheldon and Eleanor T. Glueck, *One Thousand Juvenile Delinquents*, Cambridge, 1934.

⁶ Sheldon and Eleanor T. Glueck, *Five Hundred Delinquent Women*, New York, 1934.

⁷ Elio D. Monachesi, *Prediction Factors in Probation*, Hanover, New Hampshire, 1932.

⁸ George B. Vold, "Prediction Methods Applied to Problems of Classification within Institutions," *J. Crim. Law and Criminol.*, 26: 202-209, July 1935.

using only ten factors which on inspection were judged important in determining prison conduct and he found that the expectancy table based upon these ten factors did not differ materially from that based upon twenty-nine factors though the latter table tended to discriminate more sharply at the ends of the score frequency distribution.

Vold's work is of importance in that it represents the application of prediction techniques to another field of human behavior. The extensive use of prognostic instruments in this field has far-reaching implications. Criminologists are more or less agreed that penal institutions do not always offer enough in the way of individualized treatment. Even when serious attempts are made in this direction little is available which has been tested and evaluated to any considerable extent. The utilization of prediction tables in this field would tend to make necessary the testing of programs in terms of achieved results and would probably also result in the launching of novel methods of treatment.

In *Predicting Criminality*,⁹ Laune attempts to improve parole prediction by utilizing data not included in previous studies. He states that the Burgess method is subject to a number of objections because it is based in part upon static, ambiguous, unverified, and overlapping factors. He also states that the offender's adjustment to life after having served a sentence in an institution is dependent upon his attitudes which are modified to a considerable degree by his experiences with prison life. It is, therefore, necessary to take into account these attitudes and their modifications when decisions regarding the parolability of an offender are made. Laune then attempts to discover a method for determining these attitudes and finds that the problem may be solved by utilizing the "hunches" of persons who are intimately acquainted with offenders. He is also inclined to believe that among persons acquainted with the offender, fellow-inmates would probably be especially qualified to render estimates of the offender's probable parolability. Having made these assumptions, Laune gets involved in an elaborate and complicated statistical analysis of "hunches" that tends to give his results a semblance of respectability and accuracy. It does seem, however, that unverified "hunches" do not furnish an adequate foundation upon which to erect a prediction instrument. On the other hand, it does seem true that Laune's investigation suggests a number of possibilities for improving prediction techniques and his contention that prediction instruments be based upon dynamic aspects of behavior is commendable.

With the publication of *Later Criminal Careers*,¹⁰ in 1937 and *Juvenile Delinquents Grown Up*,¹¹ in 1940, the Gluecks offered prediction tables for

⁹ Ferris F. Laune, *Predicting Criminality*, Northwestern University Studies in Social Sciences, No. 1, Evanston, 1936.

¹⁰ The Commonwealth Fund, New York.

¹¹ The Commonwealth Fund, New York.

use in forecasting the behavior of offenders during several successive five-year periods after termination of treatment. The offenders involved in these investigations had been already introduced in previous publications¹² so that most students are familiar with their general characteristics and conduct. The 1937 and 1940 publications, in addition to presenting later data on the lives of these offenders, represent a further extension in the utility of prediction techniques. Though it is true that in these monographs the Gluecks do not add anything new to the mechanics of prediction table construction, they do extend the prediction idea to many and various phases of peno-correctional treatment. The judges as well as administrators are now furnished with expectancy tables forecasting the probable response of individual offenders to a variety of treatment possibilities. Thus, in *Juvenile Delinquents Grown Up*, among other expectancy tables are presented tables which forecast the response of persons to straight probation, probation under suspended sentence, parole, industrial and correctional schools, reformatories, prisons, jails and other short-term institutions, and army or navy. With such tables before them, it should be much less difficult for judges to choose the treatment most desirable and which corresponds more closely to the needs of the individual offender. Furthermore, these prediction tables would, if they worked in actual everyday practice, tend to eliminate a lot of blundering with the life of the delinquent and thus insure that the delinquent would be subjected to that cycle of treatment which factors in his background indicated would probably be most effective without undue delay.

Among the various fields of human behavior to which prediction techniques have been applied, perhaps the most interesting one to the sociologist is that of marriage. The adjustment of the individual to marriage has received the attention of students of human behavior for a long time and there has been accumulated a vast amount of data regarding many phases of marriage and family life. In recent years, two major attempts have been made to study the factors in the background of marriage partners with the end in view of being able to forecast the adjustment of individuals who enter into marriage.

The first systematic attempt to predict adjustment in marriage was presented by E. W. Burgess and L. S. Cottrell, Jr. in 1936.¹³ This brief article was followed by a more elaborate and comprehensive study published by these same authors in 1939.¹⁴ In these two publications are presented the results of an analysis of 526 couples.

¹² Sheldon and Eleanor T. Glueck, *500 Criminal Careers*, New York, 1930, and *One Thousand Juvenile Delinquents*, Cambridge, 1934.

¹³ "The Prediction of Adjustment in Marriage," *Amer. Sociol. Rev.*, 1: 737-751, October 1936.

¹⁴ E. W. Burgess and L. S. Cottrell, Jr., *Predicting Success or Failure in Marriage*, New York, 1939.

In order to determine the significance of background factors in marriage adjustment, Burgess and Cottrell had to arrive at some definition of marriage adjustment. It was also necessary to find a numerical index expressing varying degrees of marital adjustment. These problems were met by asking each subject to rate his or her marriage on a five-point scale the "units" of which were: very happy; happy; average; unhappy; very unhappy. Weights were then assigned to background factors on the basis of the way these factors correlated with adjustment ratings.

A rating scale of adjustment to be of any utility for predicting adjustment in marriage should be stable to a considerable degree. Burgess and Cottrell were fully aware of this and sought to test the stability of their scale by comparing ratings made under varying conditions. The ratings thus obtained correlated with one another to a sufficient degree to lead Burgess and Cottrell to ascribe a sufficient reliability and validity to their scale as well as to warrant their use of it in the selection of questions which discriminated between good and poor adjustment to marriage. Though this conclusion has some basis in the results Burgess and Cottrell present, it must be remembered that they were not able to control in any adequate manner the factor of collaboration in filling of schedules by husbands and wives. The authors recognized this weakness and tried to avoid it by giving explicit instructions to those asked to cooperate in the study. Whether these instructions were followed remains a question and it may be true that had schedules been filled out under controlled conditions the agreement between ratings of husbands and wives would probably not have been as high as reported.

Once a rating scale of marriage happiness had been constructed, the next task was to devise a method for arriving at marriage adjustment scores. Burgess and Cottrell base these scores on twenty questions, the replies to which tended to indicate the common interests and activities of marriage partners. The validity of the adjustment score was tested by correlating them with happiness ratings and by comparing the adjustment scores of persons who were either divorced or separated with those of persons whose marriage was intact. Having thus established a fair degree of validity for their measure of marriage adjustment Burgess and Cottrell correlated a number of premarital background factors with degrees of marital adjustment for prediction purposes. The aim of this correlation analysis was to find significant relationships between marital adjustment and background factors so as to be able to assign numerical weights to factors. The method used in this connection was similar to that employed in assigning numerical weights to the factors employed in constructing the adjustment score. Burgess and Cottrell experimented with several methods of assigning weights to factors used in deriving prediction scores; they found, however, that the application

of refined statistical techniques did not materially increase the correlation between prediction scores and adjustment scores.

Whenever a great number of items are used for prediction purposes, the problem of overlapping in classification of factors requires attention. Burgess and Cottrell deal with this problem by attempting to discover what they term "basic factors" in marital adjustment. The instrument used in this attempt is Thurstone's multiple-factor analysis method. The application of this technique to twenty-eight items in the husbands' premarital background revealed that factors residing in the "psycho-genetic," "response-pattern" and "social type" categories exerted about equal weight in determining the marital adjustment score.

Another question which arose in connection with predicting marital adjustment may be stated briefly as follows: Do the husband's background factors have the same predictive value as the wife's background factors? An answer to this should have practical implications for those who may want to use predictive devices in counselling prospective marriage partners. Burgess and Cottrell sought to answer this question and their analysis showed that the husband's background factors were considerably more significant for prediction than the wife's background factors.

In 1938, Terman and his associates¹⁵ published another study in the field of marriage prediction. Their study included 792 couples and the methods used in gathering the data insured against collaboration between husbands and wives in filling schedules. This phase of the study tends to eliminate some of the inadequacies found in the Burgess and Cottrell study.

The Terman total happiness scores are based upon items which concerned the individual's marriage at the time the study was made. These items in general indicated the extent of an individual's satisfaction with marriage, the extent of agreement between spouses, and the methods used in dealing with disagreements. There were nine items in all and weights were assigned to each of the nine on the basis of the average size of its correlation with the rest of the eight items and the magnitude of husband-wife correlation on each of the items.

Once the happiness scores had been determined, it was then necessary to correlate other data with these scores. Each of the responses made to questions included in other parts of the schedule were assigned weights in terms of the manner in which these responses tended to differentiate between persons with high and low scores. The reliability of these differences was tested by utilizing critical ratios. The results of this analysis revealed the factors which were of most value for prediction purposes.

In order to test the prediction technique described above, Terman selected 200 couples from the original sample of 792. The scores made by in-

¹⁵ Lewis M. Terman, et al., *Psychological Factors in Marital Happiness*, New York, 1938.

dividuals on background and personality items were found to correlate with actual happiness scores to the extent of about $+.50$. Terman concludes that scores that fall above the seventy-fifth percentile and below the twenty-fifth percentile do have prognostic value. These results should, however, be accepted with caution. Many of the items used in deriving prediction scores refer to the personality of the individual after his marriage has been a fact for a period of time. The use of items which are involved in a relationship whose course one wants to predict completely negates the possibility of such prediction.

Both the Burgess-Cottrell and the Terman studies indicate the feasibility of extending prediction techniques to another important field of human behavior. These studies as well as those made in the field of criminal behavior have contributed a considerable amount to our knowledge of the factors that seem to determine specific types of human behavior.

Recently, another segment of human behavior has been subjected to prediction methods. In 1939, Baylor and Monachesi published a study which indicated that the response of various problem children to foster-home treatment could be predicted.¹⁶ The study does not add anything new to the mechanics of prediction table construction although it did demonstrate that simple methods make possible prediction scores which seem to be about as effective for prediction purposes as scores obtained with refined and complicated statistical tools. The possibility of constructing prediction tables with simple methods should be particularly attractive to those who are frightened by what seem to be complicated statistical methods.

The application of prediction methods to the various fields of human behavior enumerated above has raised a number of important technical questions which have not been satisfactorily answered. Thus, the efficiency of an expectancy table is dependent upon the reliability of the categories which are employed in the classification of items in the individual's background. If the categories utilized are ambiguous and unreliable, the expectancy table has little practical value. This question of reliability has occupied the attention of several investigators. Vold¹⁷ spent a considerable amount of time ascertaining the reliability of his classificatory scheme and found that the reliability of categories classifying definitely factual data was high but tended to decrease as classification of items called for interpretations of the data. Monachesi¹⁸ found a similar situation to exist in dealing with data contained in the records of the usual probation office. Tibbitts¹⁹ demonstrated that prediction factors which cannot be reliably

¹⁶ E. M. H. Baylor and Elio D. Monachesi, *The Rehabilitation of Children*, New York, 1939.

¹⁷ George B. Vold, *Prediction Methods and Parole*, Hanover, New Hampshire, 1931.

¹⁸ E. D. Monachesi, *Prediction Factors in Probation*, Hanover, New Hampshire, 1932.

¹⁹ Clark Tibbitts, "Reliability of Factors Used in Predicting Success or Failure in Parole," *J. Crim. Law and Criminol.*, 22: 844-853, March 1932.

classified are of little utility. Lanne goes as far as to suggest "that factors intended for predictive use be rigidly limited to those in which a comparatively high degree of reliability, such, for instance, as would be expressed by a coefficient of reliability of .60 or at least .50, can be shown to exist."²⁰

Not only must classificatory systems be reliable but, in addition, the original data thrown into categories must be verifiable. Unless data pertaining to an individual are trustworthy, classifying these data by means of the most reliable categories would not enhance the utility of a prediction table. A number of studies made have been dependent, for the most part, upon records compiled by workers in the field. The trustworthiness of the data included in these studies is dependent upon the ability of field workers to get at dependable information. The Gluecks are probably the only investigators who have been able to eliminate this source of error in their studies to any considerable extent.

The investigations in the field of marriage made by Terman *et al.* and by Burgess and Cottrell are dependent for the most part upon the willingness of persons to render accurate answers to questions put to them in the schedules. It is true, however, that comparing the reactions of husbands and wives to the same questions does give one some measure of the reliability of answers. Thus, Burgess and Cottrell found a reliability coefficient of +.88 "between the prediction scores computed from seventy pairs of schedules filled out independently by husbands and wives."²¹ The coefficient of reliability in this case is surprisingly high and is larger than the spouse correlations obtained by Terman and his associates.

Although several investigators have recognized the existence of the problem of reliability and although several attempts have been made to solve it, much remains to be done. In recent years, a number of scales and measuring instruments have been developed which tend to make observations of behavior comparatively more reliable. The validity of these instruments also suggests the possibility of applying them to measure aspects of an individual's background and experiences so as to make prediction instruments more reliable by basing them upon factors which are measurable with tested instruments of observation.

How to select prediction factors is another technical question which has developed out of predictive attempts. The number of factors selected would seem to determine the extent to which prediction tables would be used in practice. Though it seems true that comparable results are achieved when a few or a great number of factors are utilized, we should seek to limit the selection to those factors which are found basic in determining behavior.

²⁰ William F. Lanne, "Parole Prediction as Science," *J. Crim. Law and Criminol.*, 26: 377-400, September 1935. (385-386 are cited).

²¹ E. W. Burgess, and L. S. Cottrell, *Predicting Success or Failure in Marriage*, 284, New York, 1939.

Burgess and Cottrell, as well as others, have experimented in this field and have suggested methods which could be used to give a satisfactory answer to this question.

The problem of selection of factors is intimately related to the problem of weighting factors selected. Here, too, there is need for a great deal more work. The various weighting devices in use have not been tested sufficiently in actual prediction work. Such testing is absolutely necessary since it seems likely that appropriate weighting would tend to include more variations in behavior within the predictive device.

The testing of available prediction devices in actual day-by-day situations is perhaps the most neglected phase of prediction work. Tables forecasting behavior in certain fields have been in existence for over a decade yet little has been done to see whether predictions made do, on the whole, coincide with actual behavior. A few studies, it is true, have been made, but these few studies have hardly begun to exploit this field. On the whole, it would seem that sociologists are not much interested in subjecting the work of their fellow sociologists to empirical tests. In contrast to this peculiar characteristic of sociologists, one need only to look at the physical scientists who spend so much time and energy checking and rechecking the results obtained by their fellow scientists. This procedure may in part be responsible for the strides made in the physical sciences.

At present, there seems to be little doubt that it is possible to construct instruments that can be utilized to predict certain phases of human behavior. This has been amply demonstrated. How well the available prediction devices work in the actual forecasting of human behavior remains to be demonstrated.

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THE MEASUREMENT OF NATIONAL MORALE

DELBERT C. MILLER

State College of Washington

IN TOTAL WAR, economic and psychological weapons are forged to fight in accompaniment with military instruments. Psychological pressures are developed to lower the morale of the enemy or heighten morale on the home front. As a collective consciousness of the important role of national morale grows, a greater attention is given to it. This concept is now widely discussed and many organizations have sprung up to encourage both soldier and civilian in the more spirited performance of their work. These newly organized groups have generally conceived their task as the improving of personal morale to the end that national morale might be raised and sustained. Throughout this effort, plans are made largely on the basis of hunch and insight mixed with a goodly proportion of simple trial and error. Scientific knowledge is scanty. Only a meagre amount of systematic research is available on personal morale.¹ With respect to national morale, contemporary records display only a few theoretical attempts to identify the component social psychological factors and to describe their association.²

The research reported here was undertaken to test by empirical analysis a theory of national morale. A set of hypotheses which are believed to operate as basic factors in national morale are first set forth. Then, these same hypotheses are tested empirically and a final scale of measurement given.

A Theory of National Morale. Personal morale may be defined as the confidence held by the individual in his ability to cope with the future; national morale may be defined as the degree of confidence held by all of the people in the ability of the nation to cope with the future. The following hypotheses are proposed as components of national morale: (1) belief in the superiority of the social structure in the in-group; (2) degree and manner by which personal goals are identified with national goals; (3) judgments of the competence of national leadership; (4) belief that resources are available to hurl back any threats to the ingroup; (5) confidence in the permanence of the national goals.

¹ Arthur Kolstad, "Employee Attitudes in a Department Store," *J. of App. Psychol.* Oct. 1938, 22: 470-479; O. Milton Hall, *Attitudes and Unemployment*, Arch. of Psychol., No. 165, Columbia Univ. Press, 1934; Delbert C. Miller, "The Morale of College Trained Adults," *Amer. Sociol. Rev.*, Dec. 1940, 5: 880-889; "Personality Factors in the Morale of College Trained Adults," *Sociometry*, Oct. 1940, 3: 367-382; "Economic Factors in the Morale of College Trained Adults," *Amer. J. Sociol.*, Sept., 1941; E. A. Rundquist and R. F. Sletto, *Personality in the Depression*, Minneapolis, 1936; F. J. Roethlisberger and W. J. Dickson, *Management and the Worker*, Cambridge, Mass., 1940.

² Emory S. Bogardus, "National Morale," *Sociol. and Soc. Res.*, Jan.-Feb., 1941, 25: 203-212; H. C. Goddard, *Morale*, New York, 1918; G. Stanley Hall, *Morale*, New York, 1920; William E. Hocking, *Morale and Its Enemies*, New Haven, 1918.

1. *Belief in the Superiority of the Social Structure in the Ingroup.* This factor influences morale in a positive direction to the extent that there is an understanding and appreciation of the specific values of the social structure in the ingroup. Both material and nonmaterial culture traits are involved. Unshaking confidence rests upon the belief that our social institutions are or can satisfy the basic needs of all the people. This is the material aspect. Confidence in the moral and ethical superiority of ingroup values is likewise of great importance. However, much of the current debate is not so much concerned with a criticism of the material and nonmaterial aspects of our institutions as with an identification of the ingroup. The question is whether the ingroup includes only citizens of the United States or whether ingroup membership is shared by citizens of Great Britain, the Dominions, China, South America, the defeated countries, or, in other words, all democracies or "might be" democracies. Increasing American participation in the war will probably clarify this question.

2. *Degree and Manner by Which Personal Goals Are Identified with National Goals.* Three types of identification of personal goals with national goals can be observed among different persons. There are those who believe that their personal goals will be achieved no matter what happens to the national goals. Secondly, there are those whose personal goals are expedited by the national goals. The man who wishes either a career as an army officer or military flyer, or who seeks a well-paying job, or perhaps merely a refuge from a nagging wife may find a new patriotism for the national goals. Thirdly, there are those who sacrifice their personal goals temporarily or permanently because of their belief in the greater importance of the national efforts. Probably it is this third type of identification which always has brought the highest morale to army and civilian effort. War would be most efficiently waged if all individuals believed with intense conviction that living out the life span was less important than the achievement of cultural values for which the national effort was presumably being directed.

3. *Judgments of the Competence of National Leadership.* National morale is geared to the confidence which the people have in their leaders. Military leadership has a new prestige and a grave responsibility. Belief in the political, industrial, and scientific leadership is also very important in the total defense against total warfare.

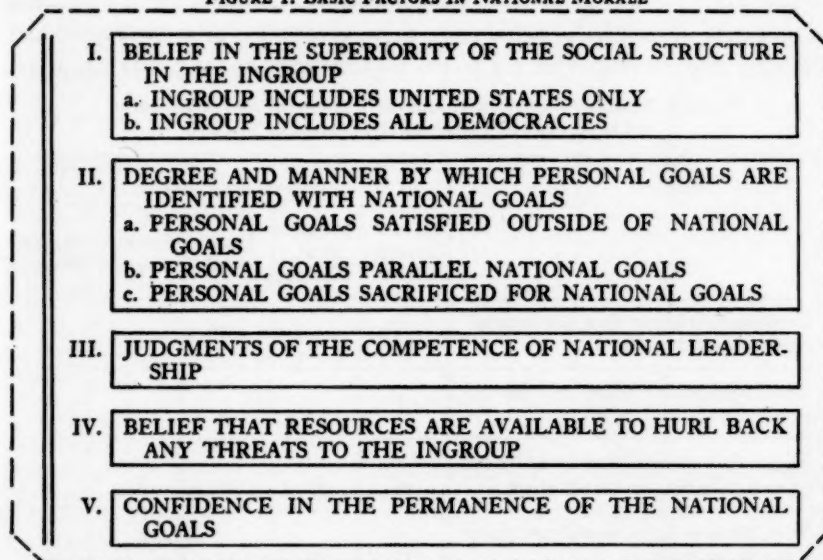
4. *Belief that Resources Are Available To Hurl Back Any Threats to the Ingroup.* A people might be convinced that their leaders were of the highest calibre and that their social institutions were superior and yet national morale might be low. Necessary ingredients include the belief that, regardless of the military or economic threats to the national security, resources are available to hurl back any such threats. It is upon our tremendous productive equipment turned upon manufacture or agriculture that much of our national morale is based.

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5. *Confidence in the Permanence of the National Goals.* If we engage in military warfare, another factor would receive a new importance. That factor is the confidence that civilian and soldier alike can hold in the belief that the ends for which he is fighting can actually be achieved when the war is over. The energies of a society of men cannot be marshalled for the preservation of institutions presumed decadent in spite of military victory.

For a summary of the theory see Figure 1.

FIGURE 1. BASIC FACTORS IN NATIONAL MORALE



A Survey of Opinions. In order to test the hypotheses, 48 opinion statements were prepared with a five point scale in accordance with Likert's familiar technique.³ For each statement the opinion of the individual is requested on one of five expressions such as *strongly agree*, *agree*, *undecided*, *disagree*, and *strongly disagree*. To minimize the effects of suggestion,⁴ it appeared desirable to balance positive and negative statements—that is, to have as many items to which strongly agree represents a response favoring high national morale as items to which it represents a response favoring low national morale. The preliminary survey was submitted to 200 undergraduates in freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior classes in proportions representative of the student body of the State College of Washington.

One of the advantages of the method of summated ratings⁵ in scale con-

³ R. A. Likert, *A Technique for the Measurement of Attitudes*, Arch. of Psychol., No. 140, 1932.

⁴ E. A. Rundquist and R. F. Sletto, *op. cit.*, 242-305.

⁵ Name suggested by Charles Bird, *Social Psychology*, 158, New York, 1940.

struction is access to the intensity of agreement or disagreement shown by the individual's position on specific opinions. Making use of this advantage, a summary of responses to each statement is presented. Table 1 is a summary of the responses secured from 100 cases drawn from the original 200 cases by random sampling. This table has been prepared to show the agreement, disagreement, and indecision on statements of fact and opinion. In Column 1 the percent who marked either *agree* or *strongly agree* is shown; in Column 2 the percent who marked *disagree* or *strongly disagree* is reported. Column 3 includes the percent marking *undecided*. Columns 4 and 5 indicate the strongest intensities of belief since only percentages of *strongly agree* and of *strongly disagree* responses are given. All responses are as of May 1, 1941.

TABLE 1. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES TO WASHINGTON STATE SURVEY OF OPINIONS (PRELIMINARY FORM)

Item	Percentage Marked:				
	Agree or Strongly Agree	Disagree or St. Disagree	Undecided	Strongly Agree	Strongly Disagree
1. Democracy is better than any form of government ever devised.	89	3	8	39	0
2. Taxes need not be higher than they are now.	45	32	23	18	7
3. Roosevelt is the best man in the United States to handle the present situation	46	32	22	13	10
4. With our new bases no military power could bomb our cities.	15	68	17	5	16
5. There will probably be a long depression after this war is over.	71	9	20	25	0
6. The British are not so much concerned with the saving of democracy as the saving of their skins and the rich trade of their empire.	46	37	17	22	9
7. Every employed person should buy at least one U. S. defense bond.	41	33	26	9	2
8. Germany has the finest military leaders of any country in the world.	28	52	20	7	17
9. Our resources are great enough to defeat any group of powers that might attack us.	39	39	22	14	4
10. No matter what happens in this war democracy will collapse sooner or later.	17	62	21	5	17

MEASUREMENT OF NATIONAL MORALE

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TABLE I. (Continued)

Item	Percentage Marked:				
	Agree or Strongly Agree	Disagree or St. Disagree	Undecided	Strongly Agree	Strongly Disagree
11. Every able bodied single man who calls himself an American should volunteer now for military service.	21	66	13	7	22
12. Things are going well with me.	63	20	17	17	5
13. It is good to see the business men who have left private business going to Washington to serve the government.	42	35	23	8	7
14. The military strength of the U. S. could be assembled in time to give Britain enough aid to defeat Hitler.	54	24	22	13	4
15. If Britain wins this war she will take over most of the trade of S. America.	18	45	37	1	2
16. The U. S. is almost the last country in the world where a man can speak his opinions freely.	58	36	6	20	10
17. In modern war the average soldier is just so much cannon fodder.	63	30	7	30	9
18. There are too many old men trying to run the army and navy.	28	51	20	13	9
19. German bombers and submarines are destroying most of the American supplies before they reach England.	11	59	30	1	7
20. Every family in the U. S. can look forward to greater prosperity and security when this war is over.	7	75	18	1	25
21. Any man or woman should be proud to die in the defense of democracy.	24	46	20	7	14
22. These days one is inclined to give up hope of amounting to something.	24	68	8	4	27
23. Our army leaders have never been trained in the methods of modern warfare which are being used by the Germans.	28	49	23	8	11
24. The future is too uncertain to make plans for oneself.	37	57	6	5	20
25. A short war is good for a country.	6	85	9	0	47

TABLE I. (Continued)

Item	Percentage Marked:				
	Agree or Strongly Agree	Disagree or St. Disagree	Undecided	Strongly Agree	Strongly Disagree
26. The U. S. is able to make airplanes faster than Germany can make them.	45	30	25	24	9
27. Within six weeks after war is declared, the U. S. will have a totalitarian government.	30	47	23	8	20
28. Life is just a series of disappointments.	9	83	8	1	31
29. The U. S. is a democracy in name but not in practice.	25	64	11	5	14
30. No matter how much damage Germany does, sooner or later Britain will defeat Hitler.	35	14	51	11	3
31. After this war the Allies will see to it that another war with Germany will be made impossible.	32	38	30	7	9
32. Whites treat the Negro in the United States worse than Germany treats the conquered peoples of Europe.	10	75	15	1	30
33. There is really no point in living.	1	98	1	1	71
34. The U. S. should never declare war again under any circumstances.	15	67	18	6	19
35. Our industrial leaders are the finest in the world.	30	36	34	8	4
36. The future looks very black.	34	47	19	7	5
37. Labor is getting a square deal today.	27	39	34	6	4
38. Our workers will work harder and longer than German workers if Congress tells them to.	22	60	18	3	15
39. No one cares much what happens to you.	19	71	10	4	24
40. No special group is going to make profits out of this war.	7	77	16	1	31
41. There is no chance for the little fellow in business any more.	28	55	17	8	2

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TABLE I. (Continued)

Item	Percentage Marked:				
	Agree or Strongly Agree	Disagree or St. Disagree	Undecided	Strongly Agree	Strongly Disagree
42. With all its faults the American way of life is superior to any other ideas that have really worked out in practice.	79	6	15	27	3
43. There is not a teacher in the public schools that could tell the truth about the economic conditions in his community and still keep his job.	32	51	17	6	6
44. The real American should be willing to fight for his country whether it is in the right or wrong.	31	57	12	10	21
45. When it is needed America will have the most powerful military, naval, and air force in the world.	50	20	30	8	1
46. Something very close to fascism or communism will be necessary in every modern nation after this war is over.	22	50	28	3	14
47. It is probable that the U. S. would be defeated if Japan and a victorious Germany were to attack us from both oceans at the same time.	26	44	30	6	12
48. The U. S. should declare itself an ally of Britain and send air force, navy, and army if necessary to defeat Hitler.	22	49	29	9	24

Highest percentage of agreement (89) is given to the item stating that democracy is better than any form of government ever devised. Approximately four out of every ten say they strongly agree. This item is a generalized expression testing a theoretical proposition. A high percentage of agreement (79) is recorded on the statement, With all its faults the American way of life is superior to any other ideas that have really worked out in practice. This item, although it taps similar information, is somewhat more specific and probably provokes more thought about democracy in practice. When a still more specific item is used, a further reduction in support of democracy in practice is observed. Three out of every ten agree that there is not a teacher in the public schools that could tell the truth about the economic conditions in his community and still keep his job. Fifty-one percent disagree and 17 percent are undecided. In the responses to these three items, it can be concluded that support for democracy as an ideal

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45. When it is needed America will have the most powerful military, naval, and air force in the world.	50	20	30	8	1
46. Something very close to fascism or communism will be necessary in every modern nation after this war is over.	22	50	28	3	14
47. It is probable that the U. S. would be defeated if Japan and a victorious Germany were to attack us from both oceans at the same time.	26	44	30	6	12
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form of government is very high among college students in this institution. Although there is less support for the functioning of democracy in America as now observed, nevertheless the belief in popular rule remains deep-rooted. This, in spite of the fact that seven out of every ten believe that there will probably be a long depression after this war is over. Moreover, nearly half of the students believe that the British are not so much concerned with the saving of democracy as the saving of their skins and the rich trade of their empire.

Strongest disagreement is registered on the statement, There is really no point in living. Ninety-eight out of the 100 disagreed. Similarly eight out of ten marked disagree to the item, Life is just a series of disappointments. At the same time, almost four out of every ten said the future looks black and the future is too uncertain to make plans for oneself. There is no enthusiasm for war. Sixty-three percent agree (30 percent strongly agree) that in modern war the average soldier is just so much cannon fodder. Eighty-five percent disagree with the proposition that a short war is good for a country. Seventy-five percent disagree that every family can look forward to greater prosperity and security when this war is over.

Of all the items, the greatest indecision is shown over the outcome of World War II. One half of the students are undecided whether sooner or later Britain will defeat Hitler no matter how much damage Germany does. More than a third are undecided whether Britain will take over most of the trade of South America if she wins the war. Nearly a third are undecided whether the Allies will see to it that another war with Germany will be made impossible after this war is over. In regard to domestic structure, one third are undecided whether our industrial leaders are the finest in the world and whether labor is getting a square deal.

In the records of response marked *strongly disagree*, intense disagreement is shown by the 71 percent who very strongly refuse to believe that there is really no point to living. Nearly a half marked *strongly disagree* to the item, A short war is good for a country. Three out of every ten disagreed strongly to the statement that no special group will make profits from this war.

Certain generalizations seem to emerge from this record. These youth display the expected optimism of their age segment in their will to live, although they admit the future looks black and uncertain. They believe in democracy as an ideal and as a form of government that will work in practice. However, at least three influences seem to have left impressions on the thinking of these college students. First, the high-powered peace propaganda of the twenties and early thirties has found its mark in the mind and left a picture of war as a horrible activity never being worth the price demanded. Only one out of four agrees that any man or woman should be proud to die in the defense of democracy. Secondly, the American History as taught to practically all has left a suspicion of England and her inten-

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tions. Many of our liberals formerly criticized the class distinctions in England and have said many times that England is not a "true democracy." British appeasement tactics of the thirties are remembered. It can be understood in the light of this background why nearly half believe that the British are not so much concerned with the saving of democracy as with the saving of their skins and the rich trade of their empire. Thirdly, the scars of the depression are observed in many of the responses indicating a lack of confidence in the social and economic structure. The belief that labor is not getting a square deal, that special groups are going to make profits out of this war, and the conviction that there will be a long depression after this war all attest to the feeling of insecurity and injustice.

Confidence in democracy and in the foreign policy of this government will not mature into a dynamic national morale for these college students until these past influences have been surmounted.

Construction of a Scale To Measure National Morale. The next step in checking the validity of our hypotheses and in constructing a scale of measurement was carried out by seeking those statements which discriminate between persons of high and of low national morale. This was done by scoring the 48 statements marked by each individual. Numerical values had been assigned each response with a weighting of 1.00 arbitrarily assigned to that response believed to demonstrate high morale. For example, all those who marked *strongly agree* to "Democracy is better than any form of government ever devised," received a value of 1.00 for that statement.⁶ A value of 5.00 was given to those who marked strongly disagree. Persons marking intermediate positions received values of 2, 3, and 4, respectively. Final tabulations of 200 cases revealed a normal distribution of scores for the survey ranging from 98 to 189. Selecting those scores in the extreme deciles of the range, the mean item-value on each of the 48 statements was computed. The difference found by subtracting the mean item-value of the upper decile from the lower decile was used as the index of discrimination.⁷ Table 2 shows the item scale differences for each statement. A notation is made in this table indicating that agreement is favorable to high national morale in the positive statement and unfavorable in the negative statement.

Likert?

The purpose in constructing the 48 original statements was not only to find those critical clusters of attitude that distinguish persons of high from persons of low national morale but also to identify the basic factors operating in the variable. The five hypotheses have been stated. The 48 original statements were constructed in such a way as to reflect these hypotheses. Approximately equal numbers of statements were built around each propo-

⁶ For those interested in the weighting of responses on the Likert type of scale, see Gardner Murphy and Rensis Likert, *Public Opinion and the Individual*, 44-47, New York, 1938.

⁷ For procedure see E. A. Rundquist and R. F. Sletto, *op. cit.*, 12.

TABLE 2. NATIONAL MORALE ITEMS ARRANGED IN ORDER OF THEIR CAPACITY
TO DISCRIMINATE BETWEEN THE UPPER AND LOWER DECILES
N=200

Item Number ¹	Scale Value Difference	Type of Statement	Item Number	Scale Value Difference	Type of Statement
48	2.600	Positive	3	1.300	Positive
29	2.500	Negative	28	1.300	Negative
32	2.200	Negative	38	1.250	Positive
6	2.100	Negative	40	1.200	Positive
30	2.100	Positive	12	1.150	Positive
17	2.000	Negative	20	1.100	Positive
14	1.950	Positive	26	1.100	Positive
27	1.950	Negative	43	1.100	Negative
41	1.800	Negative	7	1.050	Positive
44	1.800	Positive	5	.950	Negative
36	1.750	Negative	16	.900	Positive
10	1.700	Negative	31	.900	Positive
18	1.700	Negative	33	.900	Negative
21	1.650	Positive	2	.700	Negative
13	1.600	Positive	37	.700	Positive
24	1.600	Negative	45	.700	Positive
11	1.550	Positive	25	.650	Positive
39	1.550	Negative	23	.650	Negative
35	1.450	Positive	42	.450	Positive
34	1.431	Negative	15	.400	Negative
46	1.400	Negative	19	.350	Negative
8	1.350	Negative	47	.300	Negative
22	1.350	Negative	4	.150	Positive
1	1.300	Positive	9	.050	Positive

¹ Items can be read from Table 1.

sition in order to test their validity on the criterion of internal consistency.⁸ It was believed that those statements showing themselves related to the criterion would constitute evidence for the validity of those hypotheses from which the statements were deduced. Therefore, the statements with the highest item-scale differences, being the most discriminating between high and low national morale groups, were examined to see what hypotheses were reflected. The eighteen most discriminating items are presented in Table 3. In this table is a record of the hypotheses to which each statement is believed most directly related. Also, there is a Pearsonian coefficient indicating the degree of relationship between item values and the total score of the survey (the criterion of national morale). One hundred cases were analyzed.

It is significant that each hypothesis is represented by a statement indicating relationship with the criterion. It is believed that the eighteen correlates may be submitted as evidence for the validity of all five of the

⁸ R. F. Sletto, "A Critical Study of the Criterion of Internal Consistency in Personality Scale Construction," *Amer. Sociol. Rev.*, Feb. 1936, 1: 61-68.

hypotheses. If expert judges can agree that the statements reflect degrees of national morale when answered according to the agreement or disagreement indicated, then the case for the verification of five basic factors in national morale is established for this sample.

A final scale of measurement for national morale is ready.

TABLE 3. RELATIONSHIP OF ITEMS TO CRITERION

Item	Deduced from Hypothesis	Correlation Coefficient	Item	Deduced from Hypothesis	Correlation Coefficient
6	Ib	.70	10	V	.45
29	Ia	.62	39	IIa	.43
14	IV	.60	48	Ib	.40
27	V	.58	21	IIc	.39
41	Ia	.55	24	IIa	.38
32	V	.54	13	III	.38
30	Ib	.52	44	IIc	.38
18	III	.52	36	IIa	.36
17	IIb	.51	11	IIc	.33

To read item, see Table 1.

To read hypothesis, see Figure 1.

WASHINGTON STATE SURVEY OF OPINIONS

Directions

READ EACH ITEM CAREFULLY AND UNDERLINE QUICKLY THE PHRASE WHICH BEST EXPRESSES YOUR FEELING ABOUT THE STATEMENT. Wherever possible, let your own personal experience determine your answer. Do not spend much time on any item. If in doubt underline the phrase which seems most nearly to express your present feeling about the statement. WORK RAPIDLY. Be sure to answer every item.

1. THE BRITISH ARE NOT SO MUCH CONCERNED WITH THE SAVING OF DEMOCRACY AS WITH THE SAVING OF THEIR SKINS AND THE RICH TRADE OF THEIR EMPIRE
Strongly agree⁵ Agree⁴ Undecided³ Disagree² Strongly disagree¹
2. NO MATTER WHAT HAPPENS IN THIS WAR, DEMOCRACY WILL COLLAPSE SOONER OR LATER
Strongly agree⁵ Agree⁴ Undecided³ Disagree² Strongly disagree¹
3. EVERY ABLE-BODIED SINGLE MAN WHO CALLS HIMSELF AN AMERICAN SHOULD VOLUNTEER NOW FOR MILITARY SERVICE
Strongly agree¹ Agree² Undecided³ Disagree⁴ Strongly disagree⁵
4. IT IS GOOD TO SEE THE BUSINESS MEN WHO HAVE LEFT PRIVATE BUSINESS GOING TO WASHINGTON TO SERVE THE GOVERNMENT
Strongly agree¹ Agree² Undecided³ Disagree⁴ Strongly disagree⁵
5. THE MILITARY STRENGTH OF THE UNITED STATES COULD BE ASSEMBLED IN TIME TO GIVE BRITAIN ENOUGH AID TO DEFEAT HITLER
Strongly agree¹ Agree² Undecided³ Disagree⁴ Strongly disagree⁵
6. IN MODERN WAR, THE AVERAGE SOLDIER IS JUST SO MUCH CANNON FODDER
Strongly agree⁵ Agree⁴ Undecided³ Disagree² Strongly disagree¹
7. THERE ARE TOO MANY OLD MEN TRYING TO RUN THE ARMY AND NAVY
Strongly agree⁵ Agree⁴ Undecided³ Disagree² Strongly disagree¹

8. ANY MAN OR WOMAN SHOULD BE PROUD TO DIE IN THE DEFENSE OF DEMOCRACY
Strongly agree¹ Agree² Undecided³ Disagree⁴ Strongly disagree⁵
9. THE FUTURE IS TOO UNCERTAIN TO MAKE PLANS FOR ONESELF
Strongly agree⁵ Agree⁴ Undecided³ Disagree² Strongly disagree¹
10. WITHIN SIX MONTHS AFTER WAR IS DECLARED, THE UNITED STATES WILL HAVE A TOTALITARIAN GOVERNMENT
Strongly agree⁵ Agree⁴ Undecided³ Disagree² Strongly disagree¹
11. THE UNITED STATES IS A DEMOCRACY IN NAME BUT NOT IN PRACTICE
Strongly agree⁵ Agree⁴ Undecided³ Disagree² Strongly disagree¹
12. NO MATTER HOW MUCH DAMAGE GERMANY DOES, SOONER OR LATER BRITAIN WILL DEFEAT HITLER
Strongly agree¹ Agree² Undecided³ Disagree⁴ Strongly disagree⁵
13. WHITES TREAT THE NEGRO IN THE UNITED STATES WORSE THAN GERMAN TREATS THE CONQUERED PEOPLES OF EUROPE
Strongly agree⁵ Agree⁴ Undecided³ Disagree² Strongly disagree¹
14. THE FUTURE LOOKS VERY BLACK
Strongly agree⁵ Agree⁴ Undecided³ Disagree² Strongly disagree¹
15. NO ONE CARES MUCH WHAT HAPPENS TO HIM
Strongly agree⁵ Agree⁴ Undecided³ Disagree² Strongly disagree¹
16. THERE IS NO CHANCE FOR THE LITTLE FELLOW IN BUSINESS ANY MORE
Strongly agree⁵ Agree⁴ Undecided³ Disagree² Strongly disagree¹
17. THE REAL AMERICAN SHOULD BE WILLING TO FIGHT FOR HIS COUNTRY WHETHER IT IS IN THE RIGHT OR THE WRONG
Strongly agree¹ Agree² Undecided³ Disagree⁴ Strongly disagree⁵
18. THE UNITED STATES SHOULD DECLARE ITSELF AN ALLY OF BRITAIN AND SEND AIR FORCE, ARMY, AND NAVY IF NECESSARY TO DEFEAT HITLER
Strongly agree¹ Agree² Undecided³ Disagree⁴ Strongly disagree⁵

The reliability coefficient of the scale by the split-half method is .69. When corrected by the usual form of the Spearman-Brown formula for calculating the reliability coefficient of the entire test, .82 is the result. No effort was made to secure a test-retest coefficient. National morale is believed to be dynamic. A test of a highly variable attitude yielding constant retest scores would be a bad test.

The validity of this scale can best be found by determining the correspondence of verbal behavior with action patterns. In a further study, the relationship between the verbal behavior and more overt forms of behavior is to be examined and determined. At present, the case for validity rests upon the theory of national morale and the success of the item to reflect the propositions set forth. R. V. Bowers has contended that "When theory becomes an explicitly formulated body of propositions, and when scales of measurement formally utilize one or more of these propositions as their rationale, then true validity will have been achieved."⁹ A body of propositions has been formulated to explain the variable studied here. Items were constructed to reflect these propositions. Using the criterion of internal consistency discriminating items were identified and their relationship to the criterion determined. If the theory is sound, and the items reflect the propositions, then the scale measures what it purports to measure.

⁹ Raymond V. Bowers, "An Analysis of the Problem of Validity," *Amer. Sociol. Rev.*, Feb. 1936, 1: 69-74.

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RECENT TRENDS IN FAMILY RESEARCH

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SCIENTIFIC STUDY of the family began with the investigation of Le Play into the budgets of thirty-six European working men's families.¹ This initial interest in the economic aspects of family life was soon superseded by historical and anthropological studies of the family, the most outstanding of which was that of Westermarck.² It was not until after World War I, however, that research was begun into the nature and organization of the modern family.

The neglect of the contemporary family in the face of this long period of interest in the historical and so-called 'primitive' family is readily understandable. A frame of reference had to be forged before the scientific analysis of the family could proceed. In its absence, the reform attitude prevailed so far as the contemporary family was concerned. The study of the primitive family paved the way for a more objective approach.

Sociological research in the contemporary family originated when the principle of social interaction was developed and applied to the study of the family. This principle provided the conceptual framework necessary for an escape from the sterility of the purely descriptive type of research fostered by the anthropological field studies and gave a basic foundation upon which to build a distinctive sociological approach in contrast to the previous economic, historical, and legal approaches. The analysis of recent trends in family research rightly begins with the shifts which have taken place following the acceptance of the interactional point of view. These shifts have not weakened the interactional principle but strengthened it by extending its scope. In this extension, the concept has become more clearly defined and its operation more cogently described. Therefore, recent trends represent shifts in emphasis rather than in basic point of view.

Not everyone interested in the contemporary family immediately accepted the interactional point of view. In fact, much of the research during the first decade following World War I showed little recognition of the pertinence of this point of view. This was particularly true of those researches carried on outside the field of sociology where the historical and commonsense approaches still prevailed, though often buttressed by elaborate statistical compilations. Psychiatric and psychoanalytic investigators of the family also remained explicitly outside the fold, although implicitly they accepted the interactional principle.³ By the end of the decade, how-

¹ *Les Ouvriers Européens*, Paris, 1855.

² *History of Human Marriage*, Helsingfors and London, 1889-1891.

³ See J. C. Flügel, *Psychoanalytic Study of the Family*, London, 1921, as representative of the literature in this field.

ever, there was little left in the way of research which did not explicitly or implicitly proceed from an interactional point of view, except for an occasional sporadic resurrection of the commonsense approach. These vestigial revivals only helped to make more apparent the sterility of the old and the fecundity of the new.

In general, then, the second decade following World War I was given over to adapting sociological research to the data as defined by the interactional point of view. These adaptations may, for purposes of analysis, be broken up into: (1) changes in frames of reference; (2) shifts in the areas of the family studies; and (3) transformations in the sources and methods of research.

1. *Changes in Frames of Reference.* The first consequence of the acceptance of the interactional point of view was the direction of attention away from the family as an institutional arrangement to the study of specific *families*. This meant the definition of the family as a dynamic enterprise in which the significant elements are the attitudes and sentiments, the values and roles, of the individual members who constitute the intimate groups growing out of marriage and reproduction.⁴ Thus, the unity of the family consists in the mutual responsiveness of its interacting members, with mutual identification and consensus operating to control the individualizing tendencies. The family thus represents an accommodation never fully realized and always subject to revision but nonetheless real so long as interaction continues.

With the acceptance of the interactional point of view, certain trends in frames of reference have become apparent. These have been in the form of extensions in the point of view and the development of subsidiary concepts which illuminate and make more useful the interactional principle as an explanatory methodological device. Thus, interaction alone represents essentially a basic point of view from which to approach the study of the family, whereas the later developments have been in the direction of building out of this basic concept a conceptual system in terms of which all the concrete observations of family life can be subsumed.

One of the first extensions of the interactional principle resulted in the development of typology. Here, familial behavior is considered static and the patterns of relationship between family members are differentiated. Thus, one may differentiate between the rural and the urban family; the integrated and the disintegrated; the stable and the unstable; the paternal, maternal, filiocentric, and equalitarian, etc. At first sight, it might seem that the typological approach is a negation of the interactional principle. In fact, it may become so, but such negation is not inevitable and typology may be introduced as a methodological device to symbolize the basic char-

⁴ For the initial expression of this point of view, see E. W. Burgess, "The Family as a Unity of Interacting Personalities," *Family*, 1926, 7: 3-9.

acter of the interaction within each of the classes of families conceptualized by the family type. Thus, to say "some families are stable" simply means that the character of interaction is such that identification of purposes and common action is so pronounced in comparison with the tendencies toward individualized behavior that, for the moment at least, there is little probability of a cessation of family interaction. The unstable family, on the other hand, is one in which so much of interaction takes the form of conflict that the family's basic unity is threatened constantly.

The typological approach is closely related to the analysis of processes in family life yet it is basically different from such analysis. Whereas the typological approach leads to the consideration of the family at a particular time in terms of the varying aspects of interaction, the process approach is concerned with the differentiation of the several patterns of change which operate simultaneously in all families, though in varying degrees. Thus, one may differentiate between the processes of organization and disorganization in family interaction. The classification of tensions and of marriage-conflict patterns such as the sexual, the response, and the cultural, all represent differentiations of processes within the larger interactional field of family conflict.

A second extension of the interactional principle has been the development of role analysis. In the analysis of family patterns and processes, the basic entities in interaction are the attitudes, sentiments, values, and wishes of the individuals who constitute the family group with no regard, however, for the fact that these units are in turn organized into patterns which are identifiable with the biological organism. Thus, in the pattern and process analysis, the personality is everywhere assumed but in no strict sense taken into account since the analysis proceeds from the methodological assumption that the basic units in the interaction are the elements which make up the personality and these operate independently from each other. Role analysis, on the other hand, recognizes the inherent connection between the elements of the personality which derive from the fact that the organs of response are biological in character. The most primary and fundamental relationship between attitudes, sentiments, and wishes, therefore, is that which exists within the personality and is associated with the biological organism. All other relationships are subsidiary to this basic patterning of the personality; this is the premise of role analysis.

Role analysis has passed through several stages of development. Initially, it was little more than emphasis on the dynamics of the interaction between the members of family groups as observed by common sense. Thus, the man in marriage takes the role of the husband and the woman takes the role of the wife. Both, in turn, take parent roles toward the children who assume the child roles. The individual's conception of his role as a husband, or a wife, or a parent, or a child, may not coincide with the conceptions of

the other members of the family and the consequence is that family conflict becomes "member roles in turmoil."⁵

Role analysis in family relations has found further development in the conception of role as the affectional and response relationship developed in early life between the child and the parent of the opposite sex. Thus, the marriage partner is satisfactory to the extent to which he functions as a substitute for the favorite parent if there was strong parental attachment, or as he supplies the affectional and response relationship desired but never realized in the parent-child relationship, if the individual was frustrated in achieving a satisfactory relationship with the parent of the opposite sex.⁶

A third variation in role analysis is found in the conception of the personality as a pattern of life. The pattern of life consists of the form of accommodation the individual has developed between his role defined in early family experiences (i.e., in his relationship with his parents and siblings) and his role as defined in communal interaction. According to this point of view, the life adjustment of the individual is determined by the degree to which the individual can realize in communal contacts essentially the same type of relationships which he developed in his early family life, if these were emotionally satisfying, or escape them, if they were emotionally unsatisfactory. In any case, role analysis is concerned with every aspect of the individual's social adjustment, the dominant element being, however, the parental and sibling relationships. Role, in this sense, is related to marriage in that this relationship, though of greater intimacy, entails social adjustments of the same order as those of the rest of social life. Domestic accord or discord is determined, accordingly, by the facility with which the individual is equipped by the character of his life pattern for solving the problems of marriage accommodation. These problems, of course, are part and parcel of all other social adjustment outside marriage. Life patterns which facilitate social adjustment also facilitate marriage adjustments and vice versa.⁷

A third extension of the interactional approach has taken the form of ecological analysis. From this point of view, the facts of family life are related to the basic pattern of communal life which, as a consequence of the competitive process, results in the differentiation of natural areas through the segregation of population. This segregation takes place, first, on the economic level and, second, on a wide variety of cultural characteristics. This orients the study of the family, particularly in its statistical aspects, to the larger social order as it is expressed in spatial terms.⁸ Family

⁵ See Katherine D. Lumpkin, *The Family: A Study of Member Roles*, Chapel Hill, 1933.

⁶ See E. W. Burgess and Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr., *Predicting Success or Failure in Marriage*, Chapter XI, New York, 1939.

⁷ See Harriet R. Mowrer, *Personality Adjustment and Domestic Discord*, New York, 1935.

⁸ See Ernest R. Mowrer, *Family Disorganization*, Chapters V and XIV, Rev. ed., Chicago, 1939; also J. H. S. Bossard, *Marriage and the Child*, Chapter VII, Philadelphia, 1940.

organization and disorganization, accordingly, become a part of the larger process in which personalities are proliferated and cultural elements subjected to incessant change as a result of the competitive process.

Closely related methodologically to the interactional approach is that of social change. Here, too, the conventional and traditional pattern of family life is conceived as a part of the larger social pattern by which the individual seeks to interpose between himself and the natural environment a whole series of adaptations. These adaptations are made most readily in the material realm by inventions but these innovations give rise to corresponding adaptations in familial relations.⁹ If, however, this parallel development does not keep pace with the change in material culture, the consequence is a cultural lag.¹⁰

The notion of social change in the functions and patterns of the family supplies the corollary notion to that of the inherent character of the individual and thus completes the conceptual framework for interactional analysis. Members of the same family differ in makeup because of the differentials in the impact of the family pattern and in the inherent capacities of the individual. In turn, these differences result in modifications of the patterns of family interaction, which, as they become conventionalized, function as a transformation in the cultural milieu. The concept of social change gives continuity to the analysis of these transformations and supplies a basic conceptual framework for an understanding of the larger cultural setting within which familial interaction takes place. Studies of social change in the cultural patterns of family life, therefore, are an essential part of the interactional approach.¹¹

2. *Shifts in Areas of Family Research.* Changes in the frames of reference from which to approach the study of the family have not been the only shifts which have taken place in this field of research. There also have been shifts within the areas of the field itself. These shifts have resulted in widening the field of research by taking into account a wider range of problems and conditions pertinent to the understanding of the family.

The first major shift was closely allied to the establishment of the methodological principle of interaction. Divorce and desertion continued to be studied after World War I, as they had been before, as social problems with little recognition of their essential similarity nor that both represented the end-products of domestic discord, an aspect of family disorganization. The

⁹ See W. F. Ogburn, "The Family and Its Functions," Chapter XII, in *Recent Social Trends*, New York, 1933.

¹⁰ Originally developed by W. F. Ogburn in *Social Change*, Part IV, New York, 1922. See also F. Stuart, Chapin, *Cultural Change*, Chapter X, New York, 1928.

¹¹ For an illustration of how the general notion of interaction and social change may be utilized in the understanding of the family within a racial minority, see E. Franklin Frazier, *The Negro Family in Chicago*, Chicago, 1932, and *The Negro Family in the United States*, Chicago, 1939.

recognition of divorce and desertion as indices of family disorganization gave these facts a broader significance and paved the way to a more realistic understanding of the family relationship in much the same way that the study of pathology in medicine has thrown light upon the normal functioning of the human body.¹²

In the analysis of domestic discord as one aspect of family disorganization, causal factors were first sought in the early experiences of the marriage relationship. Some attention was given, it is true, to the cultural background of the two persons, but these elements were considered of significance only as they indicated the character of the two persons entering marriage. In the analysis, a particular set of factors might be singled out, or an attempt might be made to determine the respective roles of all the various factors.¹³ This analysis sometimes took the form of measuring the influence of such factors as could be correlated with the number system, or the description of generalized patterns of change in the components of interaction, frequently referred to as processes. Whatever the particular methodological device, it was quite clear that the locus of operation was the marriage situation.

Application of the case study approach to family research brought inevitably an increased interest in the experiences of the individual prior to marriage.¹⁴ The effect of this changed emphasis was, in part, to shift the locus of causal factors to the early experience of the individuals. While to some extent the factors taken into account were indicative of the character of the personalities, the emphasis was upon discrete traits rather than upon organic patterns.

The next expansion in the area of analysis with respect to family disorganization grew out of the clinical approach. From this point of view, personality is something more than a series of traits by which the individual may be characterized. Personality is taken to mean the developmental pattern of the individual's adjustment to his social relationships in which he acquires status and becomes a member of a social group. In the determination of role, the experiences in the family are conceived as setting the stage, so to speak, for the individual's conception of himself and the part he is to play in social life. The object of this analysis is to discover the basic pattern which determines the individual's acceptance and rejection of communal roles assigned him, this determination growing out of and reflecting his role in the early family group.

¹² E. R. Mowrer, *op. cit.*

¹³ Compare Robert L. Dickinson and Lura Beam, *A Thousand Marriages*, Baltimore, 1931, with Harriet R. Mowrer, "Sex as a Factor in Domestic Discord," *Amer. Soc. Rev.*, 1936, 1: 252-263.

¹⁴ Some of this interest found expression in research into the experiences of dating and courtship. See Niles Carpenter, "Courtship Practices and Contemporary Social Change in America," *Ann. Amer. Acad. Pol. and Soc. Sci.*, 1932, 160: 38-44; Willard Waller, "The Rating and Dating Complex," *Amer. Soc. Rev.*, 1937, 2: 727-734.

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Recognition of the role of personality in the determination of the character of family relationships made it quite clear that the marriage situation itself was only part of a larger interactional pattern beginning originally with the birth of the child into a family situation surcharged with a fusion of cultural and psychogenetic elements, which in turn could be defined in terms of personality. No longer was it possible to isolate, except as a methodological device, the marriage situation from the larger interactional pattern of which it was a part. The result was the expansion of the locus of domestic discord to include the whole life histories of the two persons involved in the conflict, recognizing that marriage introduced only another set of problems for the individuals to solve. Thus, the study of domestic discord has become a part of the larger field of personality analysis.

With the development of a more fundamental approach to the study of the disorganized family and the light it threw upon the nature of family organization, it was only natural that the organized family itself should be added to the field of research.¹⁵ This broadening of the field has found its most distinctive development in prediction studies. Here the goal is to determine what factors make for success and failure in marriage and, upon the basis of this analysis, to construct first a scale for measuring the degree of marriage adjustment and the subsequent use of these results in predicting, either before or at the time of marriage, the probability of adjustment.¹⁶

A fourth extension, though of short duration, was the study of social crises as influences upon family adjustment, e.g., the social crisis of the economic depression.¹⁷ In general, the problem was to determine what effects reduced income, unemployment, and the lowering of the standard of living have upon the stability and instability of the family organization.

A fifth trend broadening the field of family research is the study of the problem child. While this development has been isolated somewhat from the study of other aspects of family life, it nevertheless has paralleled that study. For the most part, the study of the problem child has been developed as a phase of the study of juvenile delinquency. In this field, while the in-

¹⁵ As illustrative of this expanded area for research, see Dwight Sanderson and Robert G. Foster, "A Sociological Case Study of Farm Families," *Family*, 1930, 11: 107-114; Mildred Thurow, "A Study of Selected Factors in Family Life as Described in Life History Material," *Social Forces*, 1934, 12: 562-569; Chase G. Woodhouse, "A Study of 250 Successful Families," *Social Forces*, 1930, 8: 511-532; Ruth Lindquist, *The Family in the Present Social Order*, Chapel Hill, 1931; C. C. Zimmerman and M. E. Frampton, *Family and Society*, New York, 1935.

¹⁶ See E. W. Burgess and Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr., *op. cit.*, L. M. Terman, *Psychological Factors in Marital Happiness*, New York, 1938; Jessie Bernard, "An Instrument for Measurement of Success in Marriage," *Publ. Amer. Sociol. Soc.*, 1933, 27: 94-106; C. Kirkpatrick, "Community of Interests and the Measurement of Marriage Adjustment," *Family*, 1937, 18: 133-137.

¹⁷ See Winona L. Morgan, *The Family Meets the Depression*, Minneapolis, 1939; Robert C. Angell, *The Family Encounters the Depression*, New York, 1936; Ruth S. Cavan and Katherine H. Ranck, *The Family and the Depression*, Chicago, 1938.

fluence of the family upon delinquent behavior has been recognized for some time, only recently has any genuine attempt been made to see delinquency as a phase of problem behavior related to the development of role in the family situation. The consequence of this has been to reorient the whole study of problem behavior as a phase of the organization and disorganization of personality as it occurs in familial interaction.¹⁸

3. *Shifts in Methods and Sources.* Shifts in frames of reference and in areas of research are both cause and effect of trends in the methods of family research and the sources of data that are used. The tendency has been to move from one source to another in the search for more adequate data. In the case of methods, the trend has not been so much the abandonment of one method in favor of another as the further elaboration of all methods.

By the end of World War I, the use of agency records, both public and private, had been well established as the source of statistical data. Widespread utilization of these records soon revealed, however, that their contents were determined by practical administrative considerations and that they therefore did not lend themselves very well to the needs of research.¹⁹ In advance of this recognition, some abortive attempts were made to revamp such records to the needs of research.²⁰ Agency records continue to be utilized but their basic inadequacy is recognized,²¹ whereas earlier, they were naively assumed to contain the essential data for family research.

When the inadequacy of public and private agency records was recognized, it was natural that some researchers should turn to experimenting first with questionnaires and subsequently with tests.²² As better tests have been developed, they have tended to displace questionnaires for the same reason that questionnaires were substituted for agency records, viz., the formal character and insufficiency of the data. The future undoubtedly will see increased development and use of tests, while the trend seems to be away from the questionnaire.

The role of the interview as a source of statistical data, on the other hand,

¹⁸ For a general discussion of this point of view, see Dorothy W. Baruch, "A Study of Reported Tension in Inter-Parental Relationships as Coexistent with Behavior Adjustment in Young Children," *J. Exper. Educ.*, 1937, 6: 187-204; Harriet R. Mowrer, "Study of Marital Adjustment as a Background for Research in Child Behavior," *Proc. Soc. for Res. in Child Development*, 1936, 2: 114-117. With reference to juvenile delinquency and crime, see William Healy and Augusta F. Bronner, *New Light on Delinquency and Its Treatment*, New Haven, 1936; and Franz Alexander and William Healy, *Roots of Crime*, New York, 1935.

¹⁹ See E. R. Mowrer, *op. cit.*, and Ernest R. and Harriet R. Mowrer, *Domestic Discord*, Chicago, 1928.

²⁰ E.g., L. C. Marshall and Geoffrey May, *The Divorce Court*, II, Baltimore, 1933.

²¹ See, for example, Alfred Cahen, *Statistical Analysis of American Divorce*, New York, 1932; and J. P. Lichtenberger, *Divorce: A Social Interpretation*, New York, 1931.

²² Typical of these studies are: Katherine B. Davis, *Factors in the Sex Life of Twenty-Two Hundred Women*, New York, 1929; E. W. Burgess and Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr., *op. cit.*, L. M. Terman, *op. cit.*

is much less determinate. While this method was used exclusively in one major study,²³ there have been no imitators so far as the present writer is aware. Insofar as the interview has been the source of statistical data (except by Hamilton) it has been as a byproduct of its use either for case analysis or therapy.

The first source of case studies, as of statistical data, was the records of public and private agencies. The inadequacy of agency case studies is due to much the same reasons that make statistical data from agency records inadequate, viz., the purposes for which agency records are kept are antithetical to the purposes of scientific case analysis.²⁴ This was recognized more readily in the records of public than of private agencies; hence, public agency records have been abandoned completely as sources of case studies, and private agency records are not so popular as formerly. Much the same thing may be said for life histories, diaries, students' reports of cases known to them, or descriptions of their own families. All these sources served to help clarify what constitutes essential data for the analysis of the various aspects of the family relationship but none was satisfactory for long as a source of case studies.

As it became more and more apparent that documents written for other than the purposes of research were given over primarily to accounts of overt behavior, the trend has been toward use and development of the interview,²⁵ of which the clinical is perhaps the most satisfactory. Through this procedure, the researcher can get beneath the overt accounts of both the participant and the observer and also put into perspective the covert elements supplied by the informant in his natural drive to aggrandize himself or to play upon the sympathy of the researcher. It is this prospect of obtaining a more complete and realistic account of the individual's experiences in the family which has made the interview the preeminent source of scientific family case studies at the present time.²⁶

Shifts in the sources of data have been accompanied by marked changes in methods of research. With regard to statistical analysis, this had meant chiefly an elaboration of technique, since this had become an accepted method in family study and was more widely used than any other following the decline of the historical and anthropological. Statistical analysis, as applied to family research immediately following World War I, was much more a descriptive than an analytical technique, its chief forms being statistical compilations and rates. Insofar as comparisons were made between subgroups, no attempt was made to eliminate the operation of chance.

²³ G. V. Hamilton, *A Research in Marriage*, New York, 1929.

²⁴ Ernest R. and Harriet R. Mowrer, *op. cit.*

²⁵ See Harriet R. Mowrer, *op. cit.*, 1935.

²⁶ See Willard Waller, *The Old Love and the New*, New York, 1930, as illustrative of the effective use of a combination of autobiographical documents, letters, confidential narratives, and interviews.

There was an occasional use of correlation of time series,²⁷ but this was neither generally understood nor appreciated. By the end of the first decade, however, a number of studies had appeared which utilized the more complicated techniques of correlation and association,²⁸ and during the second decade, these techniques had become accepted as an essential part of statistical analysis.²⁹

A second marked change in statistical procedure had to do, not so much with the mathematical devices utilized, as with the units of data manipulated by these devices. The family researcher who utilized statistical techniques following World War I was naive in his conception of the character of the data with which he operated. Whether his approach was comparative or descriptive, he took his materials on faith with little or no regard for the wide variations introduced by legislative and administrative procedures which molded the statistical data into a wide variety of patterns. By the end of the twenties, the limitations of the data compiled upon the basis of political areas were recognized and subsequent studies came to be more confined to local, homogeneous areas. This led quite naturally to the utilization of ecological procedures as an adjunct to the generally accepted statistical techniques.

Ecological procedures and techniques first made their appearance in the early part of the decade following World War I in the form of spot maps. The spot map had been used previously as a method of presentation, but the ecologists used it as an analytical device by which to chart the patterns of ecological distribution. Shortly, its imperfections were realized and, upon the basis of natural areas, rates were calculated and the cross-hatched map was substituted for the spot map. In this way, the inherent defect of the spot map (i.e., the fact that it ignored variations in the spatial distribution of population) was overcome, but this was done at the sacrifice of the smooth ebb and flow in the prevalence of a phenomenon which the spot map suggested. This deficiency has been corrected, however, by the recent adoption of the isometric map technique, which, in the manner of the isopleths in geography, shows lines of constant rates interpolated from those of the natural areas.³⁰

Unlike the trend toward the elaboration of statistical methods since World War I, the case study method had scarcely made a place for itself

²⁷ Representative studies are: W. F. Ogburn, and D. S. Thomas, "The Influence of the Business Cycle on Certain Social Conditions," *J. Amer. Statist. Assn.*, 1922, 18: 324-340; D. S. Thomas, *Social Aspects of the Business Cycle*, Chapter III, London, 1925; Maurice B. Hexter, *Social Consequences of Business Cycles*, Chapters V and VI and part of VIII, Boston, 1925.

²⁸ For example, E. R. Groves and W. F. Ogburn, *American Marriage and Family Relationships*, Part II, New York, 1928; E. R. Mowrer, *op. cit.*, Part II; E. R. and H. R. Mowrer, *op. cit.*

²⁹ See E. W. Burgess and Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr., *op. cit.*, and L. M. Terman, *op. cit.*

³⁰ For a discussion of the virtue and operation of this approach, see E. R. Mowrer, "The Isometric Map as a Technique of Social Research," *Amer. J. Sociol.*, 1938, 44: 86-96.

and when it had done so, it was to experience a series of reconstructions. In family research, as in other phases of sociological research, the early twenties were the promotional period of the case study method. It was not until the end of the twenties that the case study method became generally accepted in family research. By that time, the method itself had experienced certain transformations, though it did not reach its present stage of development until the middle of the succeeding decade.

Case study is concerned with the analysis of intimate human documents which portray the individual's response to his ever-changing social environment. At first these documents consisted of letters, diaries, autobiographies, and life histories. A little later, particularly during the last decade, interviews have tended to supplant the other forms of case studies. The earlier use of case studies was to document and illustrate conclusions arrived at more or less intuitively.³¹ As case studies became more elaborate in character, greater emphasis was placed upon the pattern and sequence of experiences portrayed in the case study and the concrete details were reduced to some sort of abstraction, largely determined by the context in the mind of the analyst. It was not until the last decade that case studies have become the unit of classification out of which generalizations of patterns could come. Thus, the classification of case studies and the abstracting out of the concrete sequences of familial interaction a series of typical, dynamic patterns is the goal of the case study approach. In this analytical process, some case studies are selected out of the larger group to portray the type because they approach more nearly the abstract pattern. These are comparable to the classical cases of disease in medicine and serve the purpose of throwing into sharper relief the essential features of each type.³²

This development of the case study method into an analytical rather than an illustrative technique has been facilitated by the development of interviewing as a method of securing case studies. At first, interviews in family research consisted of little more than accounts of the complaints of the wife in cases of domestic discord. The trend, however, is toward making the interview an intensive portrayal of the sequence of attitudes in familial relations. This has resulted in the development of an interviewing technique designed to uncover the hidden covert elements in the sequence, since these are crucial to an understanding of familial interaction.³³

The transition from interviews largely given over to accounts of overt behavior to those in which the emphasis is upon the covert processes has

³¹ See the monumental and pioneering work of W. I. Thomas and Florian Znaniecki, *The Polish Peasant*, Chicago, 1918-20, to illustrate the 'intuitive' use of case studies. For a recent critique of this see, Herbart Blumer, *Critiques of Research in the Social Sciences: I. The Polish Peasant in Europe and America*, New York, 1939.

³² Illustrative of this development, see Harriet R. Mowrer, *op. cit.*, 1935.

³³ Illustrative of this development, see Harriet R. Mowrer, *op. cit.*, 1935; Mirra Komarovsky, *The Unemployed Man and His Family*, New York, 1940.

been an integral part of the development of the clinical method of research. The categorical character of the interview in the early clinical approach was a consequence of considering treatment an end product. When the therapeutic process is taken as a device for testing out the efficacy of the analysis, it becomes a part of a larger research program. Thus, the utilization of a treatment process consistent with and corollary to the analysis of domestic discord provides the laboratory situation essential for a more thoroughgoing analysis of familial interaction. An experimental approach is thereby achieved for the development of scientific inferences and for verifying these inductions.³⁴

Conclusion. What is, then, the present status of family research? An analysis of two recent surveys of current projects reveals that the most pronounced trend is toward the study of the relationship between personality development and marriage adjustment. Here the emphasis upon personality ranges all the way from the influence of unconscious motives which constitute the core of the personality, through the singling out of specific phases of personality development (sexual experiences, intellectual precocity, etc.), to the analysis of personality patterns. A second, though somewhat less prominent trend, is toward the study of factors making for success and failure in marriage, having as its goal in most instances the continued refinement in prediction devices.

Interest in ecological studies and in the relationship of family interaction to personality disorganization and behavior problems appears to be secondary to the two major trends already described, but nonetheless firmly established. In contrast, there seems to be a decline of interest in the legal, historical, and economic aspects of family relations, although projects in these fields have not disappeared.

Along with the decline of interest in some of the older phases of family relations, there have appeared indications of new interests. The most significant of these are: the study of courtship, the influence of unemployment and economic inadequacy upon family organization, the analysis of the experiences of adolescence as these are oriented in family interaction, the comparison of conflict and adjustment in first and second marriages, bereavement, and the relationship of aging to the pattern of family organization.

As to method, emphasis upon the statistical and the case-study approaches seems to be about equally divided. This means that the analysis of case studies has come to be accepted as on a par with the statistical. Prediction studies dominate the area of statistical analyses, just as studies concerned with the role of personality adjustment in family relations dominate the area of case-study analysis.

³⁴ See Harriet R. Mowrer, "Clinical Treatment of Marital Conflicts," *Amer. Sociol. Rev.*, 1937, 2: 771-778; Jessie Taft, *The Dynamics of Therapy*, New York, 1933.

In addition to the elaboration upon statistical techniques and methods and the establishment of the case-study approach, the most significant trend in family research is the broadening of the range of research to include the whole developmental pattern of the social experiences of the individual, rather than restricting the analysis to the marriage situation. This may be ascribed to the recognition of the relationship of family experiences to the development of personality and, in turn, the relationship of the pattern of personality adjustment achieved in these earlier family experiences to marriage relations. It should be noted that personality in this sense is conceived as a pattern of behavior and not as a congeries of traits. Also, it is noteworthy that in the development of this definition of the locus of family research, viz., in the development and functioning of personalities, the case-study method has done yeoman service. It is only natural, therefore, to look to the further elaboration of the case study as promising fruitful results in the immediate future.

Thus, family research in two decades has established itself upon a sound scientific basis. The tools of research are at hand for the prosecution of numerous studies comparable both in point of view and in methods. So long as needs arose for the redefinition of approach and technique, each study tended to stand alone. Variations in results were inevitable and no one could say whether the facts or the methods were responsible. One may look to the future, however, in the hope that experimentation with new devices and methods may be subordinated to the testing of what has been established.

SOCIOMETRY AND SOCIAL THEORY*

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SOЦИOMETRY IS AN axis with two poles. The arm towards one pole is directed towards the discovery of the deeper levels of society's structure. The other is directed towards promoting change of society based upon the dynamic facts found in its structure. Since one cannot anticipate the structure of society, the sociometrist must be an experimental realist and plunge into the task of uncovering the actually functioning structures in which people relate themselves to one another. It is an unavoidable task, yet one surely worth the effort, if we are ever to gain control over the social processes in which we all participate and to which the destiny not only of ourselves as individuals is bound up, but also the destiny of man as a species if he is to better his lot and build a harmonious society.

Social process is used in this paper to define the temporal development of interpersonal relationships (of attraction or repulsion between persons) as contrasted with *structure*, which is herein used to designate the spatial facts of such relationships. Social process is the *way* by which structure comes to exist. In contrast to structure, which may be conceived spatially, social process is the manner by which sociation occurs, develops, and results in *structure*, the psychosocial organization of relationships maintaining between individuals.

The task of transforming society to fit man, rather than transforming man to fit society as it is now constituted, would be aided by a sociometric movement which would take investigators into every kind of grouping found in our society, extracting patiently and thoroughly the authentic structure in which its members live and work and act upon and through one another so that we should know by what structures thought and action come to fruition and by what other structures thought and action are cut off from even the possibility of contributing to society's advance.

This may appear a large order. It is a large order. But it is a necessary order. A society such as man may hope for, and as individuals even work for, cannot come about through a knowledge of economics alone or cultures alone or politics alone, nor indeed of all these and still others tied into one bundle of knowledge. What would be lacking from such a sackful of facts and theoretical laws? What would be lacking is the knowledge of how any economic, political, or cultural fact affects advantageously or otherwise the

* The research findings on pages 518-522 are taken from the writer's doctoral dissertation in preparation at Teachers College, Columbia University. This paper was presented to the Section on Sociology and Psychiatry of the American Sociological Society, Chicago, Illinois, Dec. 27, 1940.

interrelation systems resulting from the social processes which integrate men or separate them from one another. The social processes which are at the base of man's economic situation or his cultural situation or his political situation as well as of his social situation as a totality lend themselves to his penetration if he will as arduously struggle for a knowledge of these social processes and the laws according to which they operate as he has struggled for any other body of knowledge which he recognized as worth pursuing. His search for knowledge of his own anatomy, of his physical environment, of the world both within and without himself has gradually increased his mastery of his physical well-being and of how he can adapt himself to the physical environment or adapt it to himself. Sociometry has given us a suggestion that man may also apprehend the social processes, from which he cannot abstract himself and within which his life is passed. Sociology need not be content with less an objective than the knowledge of society's structure and the conditions under which it assumes one or another form.

As collaborator with J. L. Moreno in this attempt to dissect society at its source, it appeared to me during our earliest experiments in 1931-32, that of uncovering the social processes at work among some 2000 school children,¹ and later in 1932-34, of uncovering the social processes operating in a closed community of some 600 persons,¹ that in each case, here at last the social systems by which individuals coordinate with one another would provide the key to unlock the secrets that exist in the uncharted social universe. In fact, we went at the task determined to secure the genuine structures beneath the surface of these collectives, but instead of our securing by these and other efforts the sought-for key to everything, what we found, after turning one corner after another, was that around each one were still further avenues looming ahead. Today, ten years later, after many other workers, particularly Criswell,² Dodd,³ Loomis and Davidson,⁴ Lundberg and Steele,⁵ and Zeleny⁶ (besides Lewin and Lippitt⁷ who have used sociometric techniques in setting up experiments in topological psychology), have substantially⁸ added to previous findings, the total findings of everyone employing

¹ J. L. Moreno, *Who Shall Survive? A New Approach to the Problem of Human Interrelations*, with supplement, "Sociometric Studies," by Helen H. Jennings, Washington, D. C., 1934. The basic point of view and definition of terms in this paper are presented in the above book.

² J. H. Criswell, *A Sociometric Study of Race Cleavage in the Classroom*, *Arch. Psychol.* New York, 1939.

³ S. C. Dodd, "Analyses of the Interrelation Matrix by Its Surface and Structure," *Sociometry*, April 1940, 133-143.

⁴ C. P. Loomis and D. M. Davidson, Jr., "Measurement of the Dissolution of In-Groups in the Integration of a Rural Resettlement Project," *Sociometry*, April 1939, 84-94.

⁵ G. A. Lundberg and M. Steele, "Social Attraction-Patterns in a Village," *Sociometry*, Jan.-April 1938.

⁶ L. D. Zeleny, "Sociometry in the College Classroom," *Sociometry*, Jan. 1940, 102-104.

⁷ K. Lewin and R. Lippitt, "An Experimental Approach to the Study of Autocracy and Democracy," *Sociometry*, Jan.-April 1938, 292-299.

⁸ The published work mentioned is that which the writer considers the most important

sociometric methods appear as but one drop in the bucket—not because they are meager, for this is far from true. They are but one drop because of the vision they afford us of how very much work there is still to do if we are not to rest with a small though hardy body of knowledge about the social processes but are to carry on the task to its culmination.

There are reasons for this cautioning. The findings have been as fascinating as those of any other beginning science. Through them one sees byways that beckon in numerous directions, each in its turn suggesting a whole new area of investigation. Along one of these bypaths, an investigator may readily lose sight of the fundamental vision a true sociometrist must hold to—the apprehension of the actual structure of society—and, departing from his original intent, use near-sociometric procedures thinking them shortcuts to his objective. By questionnaires or a variety of kinds of marketing research procedures, or again, by formalistic, anticipatory thinking, he may secure, in the first instance, results which cannot by the farthest stretch of the imagination be considered as of any significance so far as a knowledge of the actually functioning structure of society is concerned; and, in the second instance, he may build a mirage of theories as to the structure of society, hitting perhaps by one or another stroke of intuition upon something which is later found to hold for a particular social situation, but he cannot do other than also contribute by anticipatory thinking a vast unfounded set of social theories which it would take a magician to unravel.

I do not believe that either of these courses will ultimately hinder or bring to a stop the steady advance of our knowledge of social systems to be gained by sociometric investigation. I do not believe this will happen because the science of sociology is today interested in objective verification of its findings, and all sociometric findings can be so verified. However, it is certainly possible to slow up the rapid progress that has been made in the last ten years if investigators do not hold fast to the principles Moreno has outlined. Moreno has insisted that no test-population shall ever be reduced to a "subject" status in relation to an experimenter. People must cease to be "subjects"; they must always be co-participants in an experiment and they must participate, not through obligation, but through their own spontaneous wish. The experiment also shall never be artificial—never primarily to satisfy the curiosity of the investigator. It must render a service to the population to whom it is administered, a service which will be possible only if all participate, and this service must be sufficiently geared to the character of the grouping so that sociometric testing will reveal the very deepest levels of structure prevailing in that population.

contribution of the respective authors to sociometry. Almost all of these authors have contributed more than the one publication to which reference is made. Their additional work may be found in *Sociometry* or by reference to bibliographies in that journal. The reader is referred also to the important study by W. I. Newstetter, M. J. Feldstein, and T. M. Newcomb, *Group Adjustment*, Cleveland, 1938.

Sociometry is not at all interested in "surface" structure, that is, in the structure which is visible and can be observed; it is not interested because this so-called structure may or may not be the actual structure through which people relate themselves to one another and indirectly to the structure of the whole of society. These surface configurations have been watched by sociologists for years and the results of their observations have led to no systematic body of facts providing us with insight into the social processes. If occasionally it happens that an observable surface structure does coincide perfectly with the actually functioning structure, we do not know that it does unless sociometric method studies the total social situation within which this is found. This is not to say there shall never be found such a perfect coordination but we need more than observational evidence to identify it and corroborate it; and it is to say, however, that such results are extremely unlikely, judging from sociometric findings to date. There can be, of course, and in a few experiments have been, built such functioning structures as become the true surface structure also but this reconstruction requires careful sociometric calculations. In most of the instances in which group structure has been rebuilt, it has not been possible to bring about a functioning structure which satisfies all members of the population in question, i.e., which fulfills the expressed choices of the participants for associating and functioning together in their life situation of working, living together, or whatever. There are two reasons for this: one, the uncovered structure is often very complex and the choices of certain persons conflict with the choices of other persons so that fulfilling the former makes it inevitable that the latter cannot also be put into effect; second, the physical limitations, as of a workshop or a housing unit, may be such as to accommodate only a given number of persons. The widest leeway has to be allowed to the investigator if he is to reconstruct with maximum satisfaction to the whole membership of a group.⁹

What do sociometric findings to date tell us? Only a few which are of importance to sociologists generally will be mentioned as it is desired to give most consideration to an experiment whose results have not yet been reported. It is difficult to separate out particular results without giving an incomplete view of sociometric findings.

The first supraindividual structure one meets is the social atom. By his selection of the term, *social atom*, Moreno has well visualized the constellation of structures active between individuals and relating the individual to others and others to him. It may be simply defined as the psychosocial relationships existing between the individual and others. Each individual is the center of *one* social atom. Around each individual are those to whom

⁹ For technique of putting choices into operation with optimal satisfaction to all members of a group, see J. L. Moreno, and Helen Jennings, "Advances in Sociometric Technique," *Sociometric Review*, 1936, 24-40.

the individual is attracted to the extent of wanting, and those from whom he is repelled to the extent of not wanting, to function with them in work or some other situation of his life. The criterion of attraction to others is desire on the part of the individual to include them in his life situation. The criterion of repulsion (or rejection) is desire on the part of the individual to exclude them from his life situation. Unless such a criterion is used, there is no unit of measure for "What is an attraction?" or vice versa, for "What is a rejection?" Thus the social atom of a given individual is comprised of all the relationships (whether of attraction or rejection) existing between himself and others, whether actualized (i.e., fulfilled in daily life) or wished for (i.e., wanted in his life situation but not actualized). The extent of an individual's wanted relationships (the number of persons he chooses) is a measure of his *expansiveness* towards others. The extent of relationships wanted with the individual by others is a measure of the expansiveness on the part of a population towards him. The relationships of rejection are those which the individual does not want to maintain in his life situation, as in work, or whatever, or which others do not want to maintain with him. Obviously, some relationships are comprised of attraction on the part of one individual for another who rejects him, or again the relationship may be ambivalent on the part of both individuals.

Next, the tele factor must be understood. Moreno coined the term, *tele factor*, for the factor which operates in groups, causing attractions and repulsions not to follow the laws of chance in their distribution among a population—whatever the population may be—but to pursue a characteristic course determined by the "pull and push" of attractions and repulsions *between* persons. It results in the formation of larger or smaller interpersonal systems of relations as social atoms, psychosocial networks, psychosocial geographies, and the like. The tele factor has been statistically demonstrated.¹⁰ It has also been demonstrated by reconstructing groups, thereby increasing or decreasing the expenditure of attractions among the members, according to the intent of the reconstruction.¹¹ Sufficient data have accumulated so that we are now in a position to know whether an investigator has secured the authentic deep levels of the social processes in a population by comparison with the known curve which his data should resemble if he has genuinely tapped these social processes. The reason for the distortion of the

¹⁰ J. L. Moreno, and Helen H. Jennings, "Statistics of Social Configurations." *Sociometry*, Jan.-April, 1938, 342-374; see page 363 for definition of *tele*.

¹¹ Replacing, let us say, a person who is the center of ten attractions, and leaves the group, by another person who is not at this time the object of any attractions from the group's membership may nevertheless result in an increase in the total number of attraction structures as the members are obliged to discover the others among themselves who are capable of centering their needs, if the newly entering person is not immediately recognized as having such capacity. Or, it may result in the reverse situation if the person who exits was unique in capacity to meet the needs of the situation. Such problems (involving problem of leadership) can be studied only under experimental conditions of *unlimited* choice by the test-population. See writer's dissertation in preparation.

¹² H.
¹³ On
Leaders

distribution is, of course, clear. The extent of expansiveness of a population towards an individual is a product of the interaction *between* others and himself. This interaction produces a curve of distribution skewed to the right, showing a few persons attracting none or few others while at the upper end, the range gradually peters out so that fewer and fewer persons receive more and more attractions from others.

Sociometric findings demonstrate, too, that the social process links scores and sometimes hundreds or more persons into one network. Also, that several networks in one community may overlap. A network is a channel for communication and is not necessarily a closely organized structure of intimate and mutual attractions; many of the attractions may be one way, unreciprocated structures. Such networks are found to differ from one another in the speed with which they transmit rumor or other content, as points of view, and especially to differ in the kind of content they carry. Networks can build or destroy structures of leadership as well as more intermediate structures.¹² Needless to state, the sociologist will gain increasing control over networks as he takes the pains to discover the etiology of their development and the social situations in which they operate.

But we need more than a fragmentary knowledge of the principal interrelation systems (i.e., networks, social atoms, etc.), assuming that the structures so far uncovered are the principal ones. It is necessary to carry out sociometric experimentation in such a way as to disclose the full sweep of persons' expansiveness towards others and the expansiveness of other persons towards them so that we may come into the greatest practical knowledge of social structure in its farthest reaches and in its fading off points. More than this, it is necessary to secure, besides the actual structures, the social facts that cause them to take the forms they are found to take. We must come into a knowledge of what a given structure means for society, i.e., of how a given structure functions in relation to various possible social aims; and what structures perhaps have the same meaning although they may be of different form; also, when a structure is showing signs of transition into another sort of structure and what this change foretells in the social process. It is not possible to approach an answer to any of these questions unless at least three conditions are fulfilled in experimentation: (1) the experiment must test the population studied at two time points sufficiently distant from each other to admit of structural changes taking place and being recorded;¹³ (2) the population must be allowed full, spontaneous expression, i.e., no limit must be put on the number of expressions the population gives by specifying a particular number, in order that the whole problem of expansiveness as it affects interrelation systems may be studied; if a given number of choices is specified, as has been done hitherto,

¹² Helen H. Jennings, doctoral dissertation in preparation.

¹³ One previous experiment studies structural change: see Helen Jennings, "Structure of Leadership Development," *Sociometry*, July-Oct. 1937, 99-143.

it is not possible to study individual differences in expansiveness; and (3) negative expressions of rejection or repulsion should be given the same importance as positive expressions of choice.

Some of the findings of such an experiment which I undertook about two years ago at the New York State Training School for Girls, Hudson, New York, can be reported here. The conditions of this experiment allowed unlimited expression of choice and rejection to the test-population comprising 443 persons at the time of Test I and 457 persons at the time of Test II, and secured their spontaneous expressions, positive and negative, towards one another on all the criteria of significance to this population at two points in time separated by eight months. The criteria for choice and rejection were: (1) living in the same housing unit; (2) working in the same vocational group; (3) spending leisure or recreation together; and (4) studying in the same group.

The first psychosocial geography of a community, made under conditions of a 5-choice allowance to the population tested (which was published in 1934 in Moreno's *Who Shall Survive?*), appears relatively simple compared with the psychosocial geography which resulted under full, spontaneous expression of the positive and negative in the social process. The geography of full expression shows scarcely a "space" which is not dense with the workings of the social process. In attempting to decipher it, the analyses which appeared simplest to make were naturally made first. These were a comparison of the positive and negative in the social process and the results on Test I with the results on Test II given eight months later.

This analysis does provide us with some assurances and also with what we might call some disillusionments as to the social process. On the one hand, it is found that individuals from one time to another time do not topple from one position to another *very different* position within the social structure. Instead, the positive expressions extended towards individuals by their peers are remarkably stable and sustaining. On the other hand, the negative social process is equally stable and persistent. The coefficient of correlation between Test I and Test II given eight months later is .65 for positive expressions of attraction to the individual; and the coefficient of correlation between Test I and Test II for negative expressions towards the individual is .66. Both coefficients are significant at the .01 level,¹⁴ so that there is hardly any likelihood at all that such relationship would occur by chance. Examination of the extent of the individual's positive expansiveness towards others and also of his negative expressions shows that these vary from time to time but retain some consistency. The coefficient of correlation

¹⁴ The critical ratio of z_r/σ_z is over 2.58 in both instances, hence r differs from zero at the .01 level of significance. All reported r 's are Product-Moment. The correlations reported, of course, relate to the members of the population who were present for both Test I and Test II and living under like conditions in the community. The findings are based on their reactions to the total population and the total population's reactions to them, on the two occasions, on criteria of uniform importance (*living* and *working*) to the total membership.

between Test I and Test II is .37 for the individual's positive expansiveness, attraction to others; for negative expression or rejection, it is .27. In both instances, the coefficient is significant at the .01 level. Both of these findings about the social process are favorable facts, but favorable for different reasons. The higher correlation at different times between the population's expression towards the individual may be considered an indication that the social processes are relatively stable as they operate throughout a community. The person who arouses relatively much or relatively little positive expansiveness from others is shown at two time-points to be retaining his relative situation within the social structure. On the other hand, the individual is also shown to maintain to some extent his relative position in respect to other individuals in the expression of choice and in the expression of rejection. The critical ratio of the difference between the correlated means on the two tests is 1.65 for positive choice by the subject and $-.50$ for negative choice by the subject. Hence, the mean change or typical change in either expression from Test I to Test II is not significant. While the individual subject in his expression may show increase or decrease on Test II in a manner that is not highly consistent with his expression on Test I (thus resulting in low r 's), the average change in performance of the individuals as a group from Test I to Test II is insignificantly different from zero. It is notable that the variations which individuals show are not one-directional. Some individuals show an increase in expansiveness after they have been for some time the focus of attractions for many persons; others show a decrease in expansiveness after they have been for some time the focus of attractions for many. Or, again, individuals may show at two time-points a like expression of expansiveness, regardless of whether the expression towards them is the same or different on the two occasions. The fact that the individual generally varies in his expression may indicate that he is not insensitive to his situation or inflexible in the extent of his reactions to others. But the manner by which one individual reacts may or may not be the same as the manner by which a second individual reacts to a like situation. It is also apparent that the social process is immensely complex.

The sum of positive and negative forces acting upon the individual shows a significant correlation from one time to a second time, eight months later ($r = .45$). Thus, the total impress of an individual upon a population, the sum of both positive and negative reactions expressed by others for him, is significantly related at two points in time eight months apart when he remains in the same population. Actually, I should say, when he remains in the same community, since there was a fair amount of leaving and entering, of shifts in the membership. The individual thus may be said to have a characteristic value in respect to the amount of positive and negative reaction he arouses from other individuals. This individual characteristic might be called his *valence*, a relatively permanent attribute and a sociological fact of importance in the construction of groupings.

Yet the extent of the positive expansiveness of the group for the individual is practically unrelated to the extent of the individual's expansiveness for the group. The r 's are low and just barely high enough to be significant on Test I and insignificantly different from zero on Test II, when $r = .12$. This also holds for the sum of the positive and negative expressions of the individual for the group compared with the sum of their expressions, positive and negative, for him ($r = .21$ on Test I and $.09$ on Test II).

On the other hand, examination of the positive reciprocations, structures of mutual attraction, that are found between individuals, reveals a significant and fairly high correlation between the number of such structures in a social atom and the gross number of persons involved in the social atom. That is, the number of persons attracted to the individual correlates significantly with the number of persons reciprocating him ($r = .70$ on Test I, and $.67$ on Test II). Likewise, the number of persons to whom the individual is attracted correlates significantly with the number of persons mutually attracted to him ($r = .32$ on Test I; $.43$ on Test II). Thus, it appears that the capacity of a person to coordinate (to form mutual relationships) with others is an accompaniment of the position the population accords him. If he does not show to an unusual degree this capacity to coordinate with others, he is not likely to be a person towards whom the social structure shows unusual expansiveness to be operating.

Another finding is especially interesting. The number of positive social forces (choice expressions) acting upon the individual shows a significant inverse relationship to the number of negative social forces (rejections) focussed upon him ($r = -.33$ on Test I; $-.50$ on Test II). Yet only very rarely is the individual the focus of many positive forces and not also the focus of some negative forces. Likewise, very seldom is the individual only attracted to others; by and large, he reacts both negatively and positively. The social processes as they emanate from the individual or as they are directed towards him and the reciprocal processes found between the individual and the population present a picture showing that the negative and positive forces within the social process are *not two separate* forces operating independently, either as they emanate from the individual or as they are focussed upon him by the population around him. Instead, they form *one* social process in which the negative and positive forces show particular relationships to each other.

The meaning the social process of attraction and rejection has for the community is not revealed even when one or another "law" of its operation has been uncovered by experiment. We may know all these laws and still gain no fundamental insight into how this community functions sociologically. The reason for this is clear. The social process does not function *generally*. It functions in specific ways, characteristic of the kind of structure it builds, i.e., as a network, or the like. But would an analysis of networks be sufficient for what we are after? They represent but one kind of structure.

It was thought advisable to study the smallest structures first, the social atoms. Now, after examining hundreds of these primary units of the social universe as they were found in this community, it appears evident that starting at this base was not only necessary as a next step to an understanding of the social process but a task that must be carried out on a still wider scale than this experiment allows before we can have a comprehensive knowledge of what are, for sociology, significant differences in structure. Not until attempts merely to follow the social process in its general operation, informative and interesting though the findings are, are set aside and an attack made upon the structural units, the social atoms of the community, is progress made towards an understanding of the sociological meaning of attraction and rejection in terms of the functioning of the community. Then we can begin to think about what are healthy and what are unhealthy signs in the sociopathology of this social process. *Only* then, however, because only then do the structures called social atoms reveal themselves to be classifiable as meaningful wholes. Then we see the social process as resulting in more than a quantity of positive and negative forces.

Certain patterning of the social atom has been arrived at by this attack. The patterns were not arrived at by pursuing any one aspect of the social process *singly*—neither the positive aspect from the individual, nor towards him, nor the negative aspect from the individual, nor towards him, nor the coordinations, whether positive or negative between him and others—but all the structural sections as a totality. Examining positive expansiveness in the social atom, it was seen that certain social atoms stand in a positive (+ + +) relationship to other social atoms, that is, such social atoms exceed the mean of the social atoms throughout the community in the amount of positive expansiveness towards others, in the amount of positive expansiveness they receive from others, and in the amount of mutual attractions they contain between themselves and others. The coordinations (mutual structures) must, it was found, be given equal weight in the search for patterns, with the one-way, unreciprocated expressions, positive and negative. Otherwise the functioning of the social atom is not made understandable in the light of the behaviors of the individual at the center of the social atom and of those persons who are in interrelationships with him. In respect to negative expression, the social atom of a positive (+ + +) pattern of expansiveness may be further composed of a negative (— — —) pattern, that is, in respect to other social atoms, it stands below the mean of the social atoms throughout the community in amount of rejection towards others, in the amount of rejection received from others, and in the amount of mutual rejection it contains. This simplest example of a pattern, that of positive-negative (+ + + — — —), is given for clarity, not because it is frequently found. For certain other social atoms, the pattern is exactly the reverse. They form a negative (— — —) pattern in positive expansiveness compared with the social atoms of the community as a whole

and a positive (+ + +) pattern in negative expression compared with the social atoms of the community. Between these two patterns are 62 other patterns which are possible of formation, but only 52 patterns have been found. The proportion in the community of social atoms of a given pattern at one time is related to the proportion at a later time, even though transitions in patterning often take place within the same social atom. Certain patterns are exceedingly rare, others plentiful. Still other patterns, logically possible, do not occur at all in the community studied.

The deepest insight into the meaning of these various patterns of the social atom is gained by examination of the transitions in pattern which the social atom undergoes during a period of eight months. Certain patterns of social atom are found to be very stable, only infrequently do transitions from these patterns to other patterns take place. Other patterns are more fluid. The transitions from one to another pattern are never random; rather, they follow what one could call "laws of mutation"¹⁵ in social atoms.

Further disclosures come as the patterns of social atoms are examined on a community-wide basis. This reveals that certain social atoms of a given pattern seek to combine and that other social atoms of another pattern appear to avoid combining with social atoms of their own pattern. The classifying of social atoms into patterns discloses that social atoms of certain patterns form what one might call *social molecules*, larger structures than the social atom, composed of a number of social atoms clustering together. Thus, social atoms appear interdependent in their functioning.

These findings (the laws of mutation and the clustering of social atoms to form social molecules) suggest that the social atom is not a conglomerate mass resulting from the action of the social process but rather that it has design which is functionally related to the changes it undergoes within itself and with what other structures it will most readily combine.

The search for the meaning of pattern in the social atom must not stop at this point. We must look, for instance, at the kind of freight social atoms carry, that is, at the content a given pattern picks up from the mores of the community and transmits or refuses to transmit. Social atoms of certain patterns are resistant to contributing to actions destructively aimed at the mores of the community and able to contribute to actions helping to maintain or enhance the mores in particular ways. On the other hand, social atoms of certain other patterns show a reverse picture of sociological behavior. Again, social atoms of still other patterns appear to contribute in no active way to the community in which they are found. They are like dead-end streets in which thought and action are blocked or do not develop. A knowledge of all kinds of structure together with the sociological import of each must be sought out in an attempt to arrive at the fullest possible knowledge of the meaning of interrelation patterns within society.

¹⁵ The experimental basis of this and the following generalizations is too lengthy to present here and will be given in a later publication.

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THE PSYCHODRAMATIC APPROACH TO MARRIAGE PROBLEMS

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VARIOUS ATTEMPTS to solve marriage problems, e.g., the failure of the husband to provide, "triangle" problems, incompatibility, etc., in spite of sincere attempts, have not produced very satisfactory results. Marriage counsels, lawyers, and psychologists have attained some adjustments in some cases but we must admit that the *permanent, stable, scientific approach* has not been found. Frequently we meet individuals who, as individuals, appear to be well adjusted, who perform perfectly well on every level—except in their marriage. If we do not want to force the issue and place the responsibility for such problems on one or the other of the individuals involved, we necessarily must conclude that their interpersonal situation, not the individuals, is at fault.

Those who have dealt with such problems know that even a divorce very often offers no satisfactory solution but may even produce a psychic trauma in the life of the individual which often might be responsible for future failures in following marriages. We therefore suggest that, even in cases which may require divorce as a solution, an expert scientific attempt should be made to help such marriage partners to understand and accept a divorce as the only satisfactory solution of their problem. That means we advocate a scientific planning of divorce, or what we might call a *divorce catharsis*, as Moreno suggests.

In the following discussion, our understanding and interpretation of the interpersonal situation between marriage partners are similar to our treatment of neurotics and psychotics by the *psychodrama as developed by Moreno*.¹

Theory. The psychodrama offers a method for the study of the *social atom* in marriage problems. By social atom is meant the smallest constellation of psychological relations which can be said to make up the individual cells in the social universe. It consists of the psychological relations of one individual to those of the individuals by whom he is attracted or repelled and their relation to him. It is the particular pattern of interpersonal relationships which develops from the time of human birth.

¹ The following articles by J. L. Moreno give some understanding of the theory and practice of psychodrama: (a) "Inter-personal Therapy and the Psychopathology of Inter-personal Relations," *Sociometry*, Vol. I, No. 1/2, 1937; (b) "Psycho-dramatic Treatment of Marriage Problems," *Sociometry*, Vol. III, No. 1, 1940; (c) "Psycho-dramatic Treatment of Psychoses," *Sociometry*, Vol. III, No. 2, 1940; (d) "Mental Catharsis and the Psycho-Drama," *Sociometry*, Vol. III, No. 3, 1940. The earliest publication on the Psycho-Drama is *Das Stegreiftheater* (Spontaneity-Theater) by J. L. Moreno, Berlin, 1923.

The psychodrama is a therapeutic situation similar to the social situation of the patient. The patient is asked to enact, i.e., to project or portray on the stage, present visions of his action pattern. It may be a former experience which is enacted by expression through gestures, words, and movements; if necessary, it may be enacted with the group of so-called "auxiliary egos" who represent to the patient certain roles played by members of his social atom.

The psychodramatic approach to marriage problems takes into consideration the fact that aside from the roles of reality, i.e., the roles that the patient actually lives, such as father, husband, business man, provider for his family, etc., there exist on the psychodramatic level, roles which rarely if ever can be lived through, i.e., there are some roles which actually are denied the right of realization. The totality of these roles for a specific individual was called by Moreno, the *cultural atom*.² This is a phenomenon related to the cultural background of the individual.

If one role remains unlived, the spontaneity which would have been used to express, or better, activate this role, is also being suppressed, and apparently the suppression of spontaneity in one role influences the total amount of spontaneity available to the individual. This total amount of spontaneity may be associated with metabolic factors. We can imagine that in a hypothyroid patient the total amount of spontaneity will remain at a low level. If this low level of spontaneity is disturbed, the patient may experience a feeling of insufficiency. If life events demand a quicker mental or emotional response, this patient will either withdraw or show an explosive reaction to meet the situation. We see, then, that though the total amount of spontaneity might be correlated with a metabolic disturbance, the form in which the spontaneity is expressed, especially in the "warming-up" process³ of the individual, will depend upon the pressure exerted by an environmental situation.

As the lack of opportunity for actualization of roles essential to a specific individual brings about a rudimentary development of the spontaneity in every role, i.e., roles of reality and roles on the psychodramatic level, we came to the conclusion that disturbances in the development of spontaneity in one or both partners were responsible for many marriage problems which were accompanied by muteness, i.e., lack of spontaneity in a certain role, or by explosive arguments and accusations, i.e., stored up and misdirected spontaneity. It is on the psychodramatic stage that these differences in spontaneity of the partners can be studied, understood and readjusted.

Method. The setting in which this method is being applied is the so-called *Therapeutic Theatre*. It is a stage setting so constructed that people can live through and project their own problems and actual lives in an experimental

² See Footnote 1b.

³ See Footnote 1a.

⁴ See J.
1934.

situation. The subjects can act out their problems or difficulties relatively free from the pressure of the outside world. A stage arranged in levels is introduced with lights to fit the moods of the subjects, a recording system, assistants and a director. The part of the theatre reserved for the audience resembles any other theatre audience space. Hundreds of seats are provided but they are never entirely used; very often the director and his assistants are the only audience present. Often one of the two marriage partners, or the "other" woman or the "other" man, or a mother, or any member of the family, will be in the audience, depending upon the requirements of the problem or a special demand of one of the two marriage partners. One or both partners are briefly informed of the method after the initial interview in which the crucial problem may have been divulged or in which only a general impression of the difficulty may have been recognized by the director. It is advisable not to produce laboratory situations; it must be a life situation for the client which he has to enact, or better, live through, with an increased interpersonal spontaneity.⁴ Here, too, we have found that a very marked distinction has to be made between acute problems and those that are potentially present, e.g., a conflict between the two families of the partners, financial difficulties, etc. The last ones we call the typical marriage situations. Very often hidden problems appear when such typical situations are worked out. Of course it will be found often that one of the partners is uncooperative and we may have to separate the partners and treat them individually until they are ready for the normal pattern of treatment. The client is always encouraged to start with situations that are very close to the reality level. Often, however, a remote, very unreal level is advisable, especially if the client shows overt protest against the enactment of acute problems. One requirement always must be fulfilled, namely, that the client is the central source of initiation. It is especially necessary that the client himself should suggest the conflict and develop this suggestion, choose his auxiliary ego, and enact situations as much as possible in accord with his vision of it. If we speak of the actions on the psychodramatic stage, we wish to emphasize that we mean the *total situations in the theatre* of which the actions on the stage form only a part and where the by-play of the audience, i.e., the partner who happens not to be on the stage, his reactions to the partner on the stage, and his spontaneous discussions with the doctor who also watches the performance, play an important part.

The Role of the Director. A word now concerning the role that the physician or social worker (director) plays in this psychodramatic approach to the solution of a marital problem. While under every other method the physician becomes the father-confessor, the great helper, who by his analysis of the problem and later advice attempts to solve the problem *for* the

⁴ See J. L. Moreno, *Who Shall Survive?*, Nervous & Mental Disease Co., Washington, D. C., 1934.

marriage partners, the physician in the psychodrama steps off his pedestal and encourages the partners to create their roles, portray their problems and find a solution. After the initial interview in which a rough picture of the problem is gained, further information is found in the spontaneous actions of the partners on the psychodramatic stage. After our experiences to date, we feel justified in stating that information and material for further work is supplied by the psychodrama in the shortest period of time; no other method would produce the same amount of information in the same time.

Marriage Problems and Patterns of Marital Pathology. In the following, a preliminary attempt is made to illustrate graphically patterns of marital problems in which the interpersonal situation shows normal or pathological forms.

CHART 1. PATTERNS OF MARITAL PATHOLOGY.

1.	A	B
	n	n
	A & B = X	
2.	A	B
	n	x ₁
	A & B = n	
3.	A	B
	n	x ₁
	A & B = x & x ₁	
4.	A	B
	x ₁	x ₂
	A & B = n	
5.	A	B
	x ₁	x ₂
	A & B = x & x ₁ & x ₂	

A & B stands for marriage situation

n stands for adjusted

x stands for maladjusted, pathological

x₁, x₂ stands for individual pathology

Commentary on Chart 1. Pattern 1 should convey the description of a marriage problem where the two partners are well-adjusted on every level except in their interpersonal relationship. Any attempt to solve such a problem by an analysis or treatment of each partner will fail. The marriage situation as such, i.e., the interpersonal relationship has to be treated. The psychodramatic approach offers us the method.

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Patterns 2 and 4 describe marriage situations that show complete adjustment and satisfaction, though one or both partners are maladjusted to every other performance, show personality disturbances, and could be classified as neurotics. In many cases, psychotherapy administered to one or both partners might lead to a disturbance of the marriage situation. This fact postulates a reconsideration of psychiatric methods used up to now. The treatment of a neurotic demands watchfulness in regard to his marital situation.

Patterns 3 and 5 should call the attention to the fact that a pathological marriage situation, one or both partners of which are neurotics, will not become well-adjusted if one or both partners are treated without consideration of the interpersonal pathology.

Thus, this approach is also of extreme value in the solution of the marital problems of neurotics. Well known to every psychotherapist is the fact that, though a neurotic may have been cured, the adjustment the patient finds in his or her marriage still may remain unsatisfactory and that very often the lack of a solution of a marital problem will delay the progress of psychotherapy. The neurotic has influenced his environment as much as his environment has influenced him and, though he decides to look for some help for his problems, his social atom, especially his marriage partner, may have established a pattern that will persist though the patient's neurotic signs and symptoms may improve. The ideal arrangement, of course, would be psychotherapy administered to all members of such a social unit but time and financial considerations prohibit such procedure. The difficulty of the transference to the physician by partners in marriage very often has frustrated such attempts. We wish to emphasize that this problem of transference (as it appears in the psychoanalytical situation⁵ and which interferes with the psychotherapeutic procedure in the treatment of marriage problems) is reduced to a minimum in the psychodramatic approach. We want to repeat that here the resourcefulness and creativity of the individual involved is trained and encouraged to such a spontaneous level that whatever solution of a marital problem may have been found, whether it be a well-adjusted marriage or a divorce, full satisfaction is gained by each of the partners.

Treated Marriage Problems. Before reporting the analysis and treatment of a few typical marriage problems we wish to describe the first session of the treatment of a specific marital problem in order to show how information may be gained by use of the psychodramatic technique.

Mrs. X complained that she had lost all her love for her husband who at the same time seemed to lose all his drive for better employment. At this first session, Mr. and Mrs. X were present. They agreed that especially

⁵ *The Basic Writings of Sigmund Freud*, ed. by A. A. Brill, New York, 1938.

their Sundays made them both miserable. First scene: Sunday morning at the breakfast table planning the day. During this scene, a visit to the wife's sister was planned which the husband accepted with indifference, if not with slight protest. The husband was questioned after this scene as to whether he had antagonistic feelings towards his wife's sister. His reply was very indefinite. The next scene is at the sister's home. The wife in the meantime is in the audience, her role and the role of her sister being enacted by so-called auxiliary egos, who, necessarily, had received some information from the husband concerning characteristics and action patterns of the wife and her sister. In the middle of this scene, the husband is encouraged to close his eyes and to say whatever comes into his mind (soliloquize) considering his wife's relatives and their home. The violent protest the husband utters against his wife's family, while she is sitting in the audience, brings forth tears and the statements, "I never knew it mattered so much," "I knew he did not like them but I did not know it upset him so much." There is no doubt that the husband in his fights with his wife had never expressed his ideas and emotions so spontaneously as he did at this session.

In the discussion following the scene, it becomes apparent that we are dealing here with certain notions of racial superiority and inferiority—Mr. and Mrs. X being of different racial extraction—which have an emotional basis and which intellectually Mr. X must negate. The enormous attachment Mrs. X has for her sister becomes clear by her tearful reactions to this scene. Within a few minutes, it becomes evident that the battle being waged between these two marriage partners is concerned with problems and persons on the periphery of the life pattern of a normal marriage but which, in this case, have become a center of the marriage relation without either of the marriage partners having realized it.

The Son Role. The following case is an illustration of how the psychodramatic treatment of deeper intermarital conflicts proceeds.

Husband and wife report that their relationship has become very difficult lately, this difficulty being mostly apparent in the behavior of the husband: his success in business has dwindled, he has shown sexual difficulties and often there are periods of alcoholism, sexual infidelity, followed by periods of remorse and depression. The wife seemed to be well-adjusted in her marriage, completely contented and "just wondering what was happening to her husband." In the first interview, the wife had uttered her doubts concerning the necessity of consulting a psychiatrist, so the first scene suggested was that the partners should enact on the stage a discussion at the dinner table after the husband had returned home from an unsuccessful business trip. In this first scene, the husband's mother was mentioned by both of the partners on a few occasions as an apparently dominant figure in their marriage. One of the assistants enacted then the role of the mother, after having been informed by the husband of some of her characteristics.

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The wife also enacted a scene with this so-called auxiliary ego who represented the mother on the stage. At the next session, we were able to have the husband's mother first in the audience and then on the stage portraying her mother role towards her son and daughter in law. As we discovered the freest flow of the husband's spontaneity in his scenes with his mother, we suggested that in later sessions his wife would enact the mother role in relation to her husband. While hereto we saw his spontaneity increase in his portrayal of his son role with the same woman with whom his spontaneity was definitely decreased when acting as her marriage partner, we could observe in the following scenes a "warming up" in his role as husband towards his wife. This warming up process, however, was observed only if such scenes followed immediately the scenes in which he acted the son role. It would be absent at another session a few days later. It was at one of these following sessions that the wife interrupted the scene by bursting out crying, "I cannot do it anymore" (i.e., act the role of my husband's mother). Her helplessness and despondence suggested to us to encourage her to enact the child role in relation to her father, her husband enacting the father role. After a few sessions, the husband volunteered to continue enacting this role even at home. At later sessions, we could observe the husband spontaneously changing his father role into the husband role, to which his wife responded spontaneously, too. Both partners achieved complete adjustment within their marriage situation. We were interested to note that the husband's performance also showed improvement in other roles, e.g., earning ability, etc.

In other cases, the husband refused to enact the father role, and no adjustment was possible. In two cases, the wife showed extreme willingness to accept the mother role very soon after the initiation of the treatment. No further attempts were made to work out the interpersonal relationship problem because it appeared to both partners to have been satisfactorily solved. The results, however, as far as we were able to ascertain at a later date, were poor. The reason for it will be found in the following analysis.

Analysis. Whenever we had occasion to obtain the cooperation of the husband's mother and, thus, to study her own marital problem, we found that it had not been satisfactorily solved. We came to the conclusion, that, for one reason or another, the man, as a boy, had not experienced a satisfactory son-mother relationship and in later years in his choice of a mate had looked for the qualities in a woman that would make her a mother substitute. Very often, by a neurotic behavior, he had been able to force this mother role on his wife. This role may or may not have been accepted by his marriage partner and thus brought about additional difficulties. In order to maintain a son-mother relationship, he was forced by the choice of his mate to deny realization to his other roles—for instance, his lover role. As has been explained above, this lack of opportunity for actualization of his

lover role necessarily brought about a rudimentary development of the spontaneity in every other role.

The Other Woman. In further series of cases, we had to deal with another typical marriage problem—the “other” woman. Occasionally, the wife would not know of the existence of the other woman, in other instances she knew of it and refused to give her husband up to the competitor. Here, too, the psychodrama was able in a few sessions to evaluate the amount of spontaneity in the interpersonal relationship existing between the three participants in the conflict. Roles that never had found a chance of being realized on the reality level would become apparent to both marriage partners. Frequently, an understanding of each other by the two women would be gained. In a number of cases, divorce was a necessary outcome and was accepted without protest by the partners. In other cases, a mutual understanding would lead to a readjustment within the marriage, the other woman accepting this fact. Here, too, we wish to stress the shortness of time in which such solutions were found and the fact that such solutions were found by the partners spontaneously without the interference or persuasion by the physician directing this therapeutic procedure.⁶

Conclusion. The results we have obtained by this method have been so satisfactory that we feel justified in suggesting the establishment of psychodramatic marital adjustment institutes with which psychiatrists, sociologists, and psychologists should cooperate. We do not believe that we have to emphasize the social value of well-adjusted marriages. No community can consider itself sound and well-organized unless the marriages constitute a sound foundation for the life of such community. The effect of maladjusted marriages upon the next generation whether they be found in the psychiatrist's office or in a reformatory and prison is too well known to be mentioned here. We see therefore in every nation where dictatorial forms of governments exist definite regulations of the family-life in the interest of the community. If our understanding of the role that spontaneity plays in interpersonal relationships is right, we have to expect all such attempts to fail in the end. In a democracy, we can afford to attempt the solution of marriage problems by a scientific understanding of them, and such an understanding, we believe, is offered by the psychodramatic approach to the interpersonal situations involved in marriage.

⁶ Aside from above mentioned cases, I had the occasion to observe and participate in the treatment of marriage problems at the Psychodramatic Institute, Beacon, New York, where a group of twelve marital couples were treated with the following results: five showed successful adjustment; three underwent a divorce catharsis which otherwise would not have been brought about and, hence, would have remained a chronic matrimonial pathology; four showed improvement but not complete adjustment.

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Official Reports *and* Proceedings

American Sociological Society. Charles J. Bushnell, University of Toledo, Toledo, Ohio, will be the chairman of the section on Political Sociology at the annual meetings in New York, December 27-29, 1941, at the Roosevelt Hotel. All communications concerning this section should be addressed to him.

Samuel C. Kincheloe, Chicago Theological Seminary, will be chairman of the section on Sociology and Religion. Unfortunately, this appointment was omitted in the April *Review* list of section chairmen.

Willoughby C. Waterman, of Brooklyn College, will be the Society's representative at the Centenary Celebration of Fordham University, September 15-17, 1941.

J. Harold Ennis, Cornell College, and Leo A. Haak, University of Tulsa, were the Society's representatives at the meeting of the National University Extension Association which was held at Tulsa on May 5-7, inclusive.

REPORT OF THE 1941 RESEARCH CENSUS

The results of the 1941 Census of Social Research conducted by the American Sociological Society appear below. The categories employed in classifying the projects are the same as those used in the 1940 Census, with the addition of a section on Sociometry. The order in which the sections appear is essentially that of the 1940 Census, with the exception of the section on Theory of Social Problems, which now follows the section on History and Theory of Sociology, and the section on Sociometry, which has been placed with the other sections dealing primarily with methodology.

The classification and description of individual projects are based on the author's own classification and description, as indicated on the returned schedules. The items in each section are arranged alphabetically by author. Cross references at the head of the various sections refer to the serial numbers of the individual projects, and are limited to those contained in the schedules.

In addition to the projects reported by members of the American Sociological Society, there are appended the results of a canvass made by the Committee on Social Research of projects of possible interest to sociologists now being conducted by various agencies of the Federal Government and by private research foundations.

The Committee is indebted to Henry D. Sheldon, Jr., one of its members, for the analysis of the census returns accompanying this report.

RAYMOND V. BOWERS, *Chairman,*
Committee on Social Research

ANALYSIS OF THE 1941 CENSUS OF RESEARCH

HENRY D. SHELDON, JR.
University of Rochester

A summary of the results of the 1941 returns presents several problems. The content of the returns is presented in detail in the census itself and is so varied as to make any impressionistic condensation inaccurate and meaningless. A detailed summary is equally undesirable, since, if sufficiently detailed to be accurate, it becomes

essentially a repetition of information already available in the census. Again, the character of the data available in the returned schedules is such as to preclude elaborate statistical analysis. A substantial proportion of the responses of members to the questionnaire were fragmentary and informal; the probability of reliable classification for a number of items is low; and the small number of cases involved in a majority of categories makes it highly probable that variations observed may well be random. The presentation then is confined to a simple tabulation by sections of the questionnaire data. This tabulation gives a moderately objective picture of the projects as a whole from which members can make their own inferences.

Projects were classified, insofar as possible, in terms of the investigator's own report and with a minimum of inference. The tables, however, fall into two groups with respect to this objective: (a) tables which derive directly from check list items in the questionnaire, and reflect accurately member responses; (b) tables which are based in part on inferences from free responses to a particular item and are supplemented by information found in the questionnaire as a whole, and which in consequence are less reliable.

The small number of cases in the various categories did not seem to warrant the calculation of percentages. Percentage figures used in the text are given to the nearest five percent.

TABLE I. RETURNS FOR 1940 AND 1941 AND MULTIPLE SECTION ASSIGNMENTS
BY SECTION OF FIRST CHOICE¹

Section of First Choice	All Returns 1940	All Returns 1941	Number of Sections Chosen (1941)			
			One Only	Two	Three	Four or More
All Sections	357	314	189	74	34	17
History and Theory	32	26	16	6	1	3
Theory of Social Problems	3	7	3	3	1	0
Methods of Research	7	10	7	3	0	0
Social Statistics	9	10	5	0	2	3
Sociometry	—	11	—	5	2	4
Social Psychology	45	27	19	3	5	0
Sociology and Psychiatry	15	7	4	2	1	0
Social Biology	26	28	18	5	3	2
Human Ecology	27	15	6	7	2	0
Rural Sociology	34	40	25	10	5	0
The Community	30	36	24	4	5	3
The Family	36	27	21	3	2	1
Political Sociology	23	19	12	4	2	1
Sociology of Religion	7	7	4	3	0	0
Criminology	23	16	9	6	1	0
Sociology and Social Work	19	11	7	4	0	0
Educational Sociology	21	17	9	6	2	0

¹ Tabulation of responses to "In which of the following sections of the Society do you think your project would most appropriately be discussed at the next annual meeting?"

Table I presents the number of returns by sections in 1940 and 1941. In addition, for 1941, the returns are classified by number of sections in which the reporting member believed that his project "would most appropriately be discussed." Both of

these classifications represent some violation of the principle of classification on the basis of the member's own response. Approximately five percent of the returns failed to indicate any section choice and about one half of the returns indicating several section choices failed to indicate a first choice. For the purpose of compiling the list of projects, it was necessary to assign sections to this group of projects. Consequently, the basic classification by sections represents the joint effort of the reporting members and the Committee. The section of Sociometry was set up after the questionnaires had been sent out, and the projects included in this section were taken from other sections.

A comparison of the 1940 and the 1941 returns indicates that while the decline in total number of returns was by no means uniform from section to section, there is a certain amount of stability in the sectional classification; in general, sections containing a large number of projects in 1940 continued to have a large number of them in 1941 and those containing a small number of projects in 1940 continued small in 1941. The largest decline, that in the section on Social Psychology, is accounted for in part by the removal of projects to make up the section on Sociometry.

With the exceptions of the section on Human Ecology, Theory of Social Problems, and Sociometry, more than one half of the projects in every section are allocated by a single choice. The divergence of the section on Sociometry is of course explained by the way in which the projects falling in this category were selected; the number of projects in the section on Theory of Social Problems is so small as to make the results meaningless; the figures for the section on Human Ecology might possibly be interpreted to indicate the marginal character of this field of research, although here again the small number of cases makes any interpretation precarious.

TABLE 2. FORMULATION OF PROBLEM AND OBJECTIVES¹

Sections	All Schedules	Schedules Reporting Hypotheses Tested	Schedules Reporting Concepts Clarified	Schedules Reporting Both Objectives	Reporting Neither Objective	No Response
All Sections	314	158	42	17	27	70
History and Theory	26	10	6	3	2	5
Theory of Social Problems	7	2	4	0	0	1
Methods of Research	10	5	3	2	0	0
Social Statistics	10	7	1	0	0	2
Sociometry	11	7	3	1	0	0
Social Psychology	27	10	5	1	1	10
Sociology and Psychiatry	7	4	0	2	0	1
Social Biology	28	13	2	1	4	8
Human Ecology	15	10	0	0	2	3
Rural Sociology	40	20	5	2	7	6
The Community	36	14	3	4	0	15
The Family	27	18	1	0	4	4
Political Sociology	19	10	4	0	2	3
Sociology of Religion	7	3	1	0	0	3
Criminology	16	10	1	1	1	3
Sociology and Social Work	11	6	0	0	4	1
Educational Sociology	17	9	3	0	0	5

¹ Tabulation of responses to "Is your project concerned with testing hypotheses or clarifying concepts. If so, please state them."

In conclusion, then, it may be said that, while there are several grounds for questioning the reliability of the sectional classification, such classification is not completely random, and a majority of projects are allocated to only a single section.

Table 2 presents a classification of the responses to the item in the questionnaire concerning the testing of hypotheses and clarification of concepts. With a few necessary exceptions, the classification is based on the explicit statements of the respondents. The exceptions are those statements which gave a very precise definition of the problem but made no explicit commitment as to hypotheses or concepts.

TABLE 3. TECHNIQUES AND SOURCES USED IN OBTAINING DATA¹

Sections	All Schedules ²	Schedules Reporting Use of Questionnaire			Schedules Reporting Use of Scale or Test			Schedules Reporting Use of Interview		
		Total	Constructed by		Total	Constructed by		Total	Schedule Used	Schedule Not Used
			Self	Others		Self	Others			
All Sections	314	97	58	39	36	25	11	131	80	51
History and Theory	26	4	3	1	2	1	1	8	2	6
Theory of Social Problems	7	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0
Methods of Research	10	4	3	1	2	2	0	3	2	1
Social Statistics	10	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Sociometry	11	4	4	0	8	5	3	3	1	2
Social Psychology	27	8	7	1	4	2	2	7	4	3
Sociology and Psychiatry	7	1	1	0	2	1	1	2	2	0
Social Biology	28	7	2	5	2	2	0	7	4	3
Human Ecology	15	5	4	1	0	0	0	8	5	3
Rural Sociology	40	23	1	22	6	5	1	28	28	0
The Community	36	9	7	2	3	1	2	23	9	14
The Family	27	10	8	2	3	3	0	15	5	10
Political Sociology	19	2	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0
Sociology of Religion	7	3	3	0	1	1	0	4	2	2
Criminology	16	4	3	1	2	1	1	6	4	2
Sociology and Social Work	11	2	2	0	1	1	0	7	5	2
Educational Sociology	17	9	7	2	0	0	0	7	5	2

¹ Tabulation of responses to "Techniques used in gathering your data."

² Since categories are not mutually exclusive and negative categories are omitted, the sum of the subtotals is not equal to the "all schedule" total.

Of the total number of projects, approximately one half are reported as testing hypotheses, and a considerably smaller proportion as clarifying concepts. In the main, this relationship obtains in most of the sections. As might well be expected, the sections on History and Theory and Theory of Social Problems diverge from the general pattern with proportionately fewer schedules reporting hypotheses tested

and more schedules reporting concepts clarified. Both the section on Social Psychology and the section on The Community contain a smaller than average proportion of schedules reporting hypotheses tested and a higher than average proportion of schedules giving "no response" on this item. An examination of this "no response" group fails to reveal any consistent differences from the group which did report this item.

In general, the responses to this question reveal a considerable lack of consensus among the members reporting as to what constitutes testing a hypothesis or clarifying a concept. Some of the points of view implicit in these statements are as follows: (1) All projects automatically involve the testing of hypotheses or clarification of

TABLE 4. TECHNIQUES AND SOURCES USED IN OBTAINING DATA¹

Sections	All Sched- ules ²	Schedules Reporting the Use of:							No Re- sponse
		Con- trol Group	Sam- pling	Partic- ipant Observ- ation	Documents				
					Govern- mental	Pam- phlets	Mono- graphs	Un- printed	
All Sections	314	27	92	68	104	63	107	92	17
History and Theory	26	1	5	9	5	6	15	7	2
Theory of Social Problems	7	0	0	1	1	0	4	0	0
Methods of Research	10	2	6	1	1	3	2	5	1
Social Statistics	10	0	4	0	7	1	1	3	0
Sociometry	11	1	4	2	1	1	1	1	0
Social Psychology	27	4	5	7	6	8	12	7	3
Sociology and Psy- chiatry	7	0	1	1	3	2	2	2	1
Social Biology	28	1	8	3	14	3	8	11	3
Human Ecology	15	0	3	3	6	1	3	5	0
Rural Sociology	40	0	21	6	12	4	3	7	1
The Community	36	5	11	17	20	13	16	15	4
The Family	27	1	8	4	4	2	7	5	0
Political Sociology	19	2	3	4	5	8	12	6	0
Sociology of Religion	7	0	1	1	1	1	3	3	1
Criminology	16	2	3	3	8	4	8	10	0
Sociology and Social Work	11	3	3	3	4	2	4	3	0
Educational Sociol- ogy	17	5	6	3	6	4	6	2	1

¹ Tabulation of responses to "Techniques used in gathering your data."

² Since categories are not mutually exclusive and negative categories are omitted, the sum of the frequencies in the rows is not equal to the "all schedule" total.

concepts or both. (2) Testing a hypothesis occurs only when a specific and explicit statement as to the relationship between two or more variables is proved or disproved. (3) Concepts are clarified only when they are given operational definition, as in scales or tests. (4) A logical analysis of a concept and the literature pertaining thereto constitutes the clarification of concepts. (5) Surveys and exploratory studies constitute a legitimate field of research which emphatically does not involve the testing of hypotheses or the clarification of concepts. (6) the whole question of test-

ing hypotheses and clarifying concepts is an unreal academic question and should be ignored.

Since the definition of these terms by the reporting members was so variable, this table does not provide reliable data as to the relative proportions of projects testing hypotheses and clarifying concepts in any given section. It is, however, significant in pointing to the need of a standard terminology for this aspect of methodology.

Tables 3 and 4 are derived directly from the item on the questionnaire dealing with techniques used in obtaining data. There were seventeen cases of "no response" to this item. This figure applies to both the tables and represents the number of projects in which there was no indication at all as to techniques used in collecting data.

Roughly, 30 percent of all projects use questionnaires and of this proportion, approximately 60 percent are self-constructed. Sections in which a majority of projects used questionnaires are Rural Sociology and Educational Sociology.

TABLE 5. TYPES OF DATA USED BY PROJECTS

Sections	All Projects	Projects Using Documentary Sources Exclusively	Projects Using Non-documentary Sources Exclusively	Projects Using Both Types of Sources	No Information
All Sections	314	71	96	129	18
History and Theory	26	8	1	13	4
Theory of Social Problems	7	3	1	3	0
Methods of Research	10	1	3	6	0
Social Statistics	10	6	2	2	0
Sociometry	11	0	9	2	0
Social Psychology	27	7	8	8	4
Sociology and Psychiatry	7	2	2	2	1
Social Biology	28	11	7	7	3
Human Ecology	15	3	5	7	0
Rural Sociology	40	1	21	16	2
The Community	36	4	4	24	4
The Family	27	3	16	8	0
Political Sociology	19	11	2	6	0
Sociology of Religion	7	1	3	3	0
Criminology	16	7	3	6	0
Sociology and Social Work	11	0	4	7	0
Educational Sociology	17	3	5	9	0

Approximately ten percent of all projects are reported as using scales or tests, and of those so reported approximately 70 percent are self-constructed. The section on Sociometry contains, as might be expected, the highest proportion of projects using scales or tests.

Interviews are reported used in approximately 40 percent of all projects, and of these about 60 percent use interview schedules. Sections in which more than half of the projects are reported as using interviews are: Human Ecology, Rural Sociology, The Community, The Family, Sociology of Religion, and Sociology and Social Work.

Participant observation is reported in about 20 percent of the returns, and is found most frequently mentioned in the section on The Community.

The use of control groups is reported in a little less than ten percent of the projects, the use of sampling in roughly 30 percent of the projects, and participant observa-

tion in about 20 percent of the projects. Documentary sources are used in approximately 65 percent of the projects. With the exceptions of the sections on Sociometry, Rural Sociology, and The Family, documentary sources are used either exclusively or in combination with other sources by a majority of projects in every section.

Table 5 is derived from the same questionnaire item as Tables 3 and 4 and gives some rough indication of the proportion of projects based on original data as compared with the proportion of projects based on nonoriginal data. Those projects classified as using nondocumentary sources exclusively are projects which have involved the construction of some device for collecting data, and the collection and analysis of those data. Those projects which are classified as using documentary

TABLE 6. USE OF LOCAL DATA IN PROJECTS

Sections	All Projects	Projects Using Data from Respondent's Own Locality	Projects Using Sources of Data Other than Local	No Information
All Sections	314	119	162	33
History and Theory	26	0	23	3
Theory of Social Problems	7	1	6	0
Methods of Research	10	3	7	0
Social Statistics	10	3	7	0
Sociometry	11	8	3	0
Social Psychology	27	9	9	9
Sociology and Psychiatry	7	4	2	1
Social Biology	28	10	14	4
Human Ecology	15	9	6	0
Rural Sociology	40	27	10	3
The Community	36	12	15	9
The Family	27	13	13	1
Political Sociology	19	0	17	2
Sociology of Religion	7	1	6	0
Criminology	16	7	9	0
Sociology and Social Work	11	6	5	0
Educational Sociology	17	6	10	1

sources exclusively have, with a few exceptions, such as several projects using newspaper materials, analyzed data already assembled. There appears to be some tendency for those projects classified as using both types of sources to be somewhat greater in scope than the other two groups.

Of the 314 projects, roughly 20 percent make exclusive use of documentary sources, about 30 percent make exclusive use of nondocumentary sources, and some 40 percent use both types of sources. The sections showing a heavy concentration of projects using documentary sources exclusively are Social Statistics and Political Sociology; those showing a heavy concentration of projects using nondocumentary sources are Sociometry, Rural Sociology, and The Family; those showing a heavy concentration of projects using both types of sources are History and Theory, Methods of Research, The Community, Sociology and Social Work, and Educational Sociology. The results for these sections are in the main what might be expected, with the possible exception of History and Theory. An examination of the projects in this section using both types of sources indicates that they are all proj-

ects of considerable scope, and that the nondocumentary sources of data are participant observation and interviews.

Classification of the projects in Table 6 was largely a matter of inference, and all items on the questionnaire which served to fix the locality of the data in relation to the locality of the investigator were used. The chief problem involved was to determine whether data were localized or unlocalized. A study of juvenile delinquents in a given city is clearly localized; on the other hand, a study of the concept of social interaction in the abstract is difficult to place. The first category used in this table includes those projects in which the investigator analyzed data derived from his own locality and the classification is fairly precise and reliable. The only problem was to determine the limits of "own locality," which were made broad enough to include studies using state government documents by individuals living in the given state and studies carried on by the staff of Agricultural Experiment Stations within the states in which the Stations were located. The second category is essentially an "all other" category, including projects using both unlocalized data and data from localities other than those of the investigators.

Projects using local data comprise approximately 40 percent of the total number of projects. The sections in which projects using local data are in a majority are Sociometry, Sociology and Psychiatry, Human Ecology, Rural Sociology, and Sociology and Social Work.

TABLE 7. TYPE OF ANALYSIS USED IN PROJECTS

Sections	All Projects	Projects Using Statistical Techniques	Not Using Statistical Techniques	No Information
All Sections	314	153	81	80
History and Theory	26	4	17	5
Theory of Social Problems	7	0	7	0
Methods of Research	10	8	1	1
Social Statistics	10	10	0	0
Sociometry	11	11	0	0
Social Psychology	27	12	6	9
Sociology and Psychiatry	7	3	4	0
Social Biology	28	19	0	9
Human Ecology	15	10	1	4
Rural Sociology	40	24	9	7
The Community	36	10	6	20
The Family	27	13	8	6
Political Sociology	19	6	8	5
Sociology of Religion	7	5	1	1
Criminology	16	7	3	6
Sociology and Social Work	11	5	4	2
Educational Sociology	17	6	6	5

Table 7 presents the returns classified by type of analysis used. The classification into statistical and nonstatistical analysis seemed to be the only one which could be made with even a moderate degree of reliability in view of the heterogeneity of the responses to this item. Here again the classification was made by inference from an examination of the entire return; the doubtful cases were those which made no ex-

licit statement with respect to use of statistical analysis, but which in other items seemed to imply statistical analysis.

Of the total number of projects, approximately 50 percent appear to be using statistical techniques in analysis, about 25 percent appear not to be using statistical techniques, and for the remaining projects adequate information is not available. In a majority of the sections, the proportion of projects using statistical techniques is somewhat higher than the proportion not using them. The marked exceptions—the sections on History and Theory and on Theory of Social Problems—would normally be expected.

TABLE 8. FORM IN WHICH CONCLUSIONS ARE STATED¹

Sections	All Schedules	Schedules Reporting General Summary	Schedules Reporting Specific Generalizations	Schedules Reporting Both Forms	Schedules Reporting No Conclusions	No Response
All Sections	314	33	55	128	47	51
History and Theory	26	3	5	13	1	4
Theory of Social Problems	7	0	2	4	1	0
Methods of Research	10	4	2	4	0	0
Social Statistics	10	0	5	2	1	2
Sociometry	11	0	5	2	4	0
Social Psychology	27	4	4	12	1	6
Sociology and Psychiatry	7	1	2	3	0	1
Social Biology	28	2	3	12	6	5
Human Ecology	15	0	1	7	3	4
Rural Sociology	40	4	4	15	10	7
The Community	36	5	5	13	5	8
The Family	27	4	6	11	5	1
Political Sociology	19	1	2	12	2	2
Sociology of Religion	7	0	2	2	0	3
Criminology	16	3	2	7	2	2
Sociology and Social Work	11	0	0	3	4	4
Educational Sociology	17	2	5	6	2	2

¹ Tabulation of responses to "Is your conclusion stated in the form of (1) a general summary, (2) specific generalizations, (3) both, (4) no conclusions drawn?"

Table 8 is derived directly from the check list on the questionnaire and indicates that approximately 40 percent of the schedules reported that conclusions were to be stated in the form of both specific generalizations and a general summary. In twelve of the seventeen sections, the use of both forms in the statement of conclusions is the largest single response.

Table 9 is self-explanatory and indicates that not quite half of the projects report receiving outside financial aid, whereas almost 60 percent of the projects were self-directed. Projects falling in the sections on Methods of Research, Social Statistics, Social Biology, Rural Sociology, The Community, and Sociology and Social Work most frequently receive outside financial aid. With the exceptions of the sections on Theory of Social Problems, Social Biology, The Community, and Sociology of Religion, the trend with respect to the direction of projects observed in the total is characteristic of the sections.

The tabulation of data on the relation of projects to the national emergency is presented in Table 10. A little more than 20 percent of the schedules report projects motivated by the needs arising out of the national emergency. A little more than ten percent report projects motivated by the research opportunities made available by the national emergency. A little less than ten percent report projects motivated by data made available by the national emergency. The highest proportion of projects related to the national emergency in terms of all three questions appear in the sections on Social Biology and Political Sociology.

TABLE 9. FINANCING AND DIRECTION OF PROJECT¹

Sections	All Projects	Projects Financed by:			Projects Directed by:		
		Self	Others	No Response	Self	Others	No Response
All Sections	314	111	149	54	184	67	63
History and Theory	26	14	4	8	16	2	8
Theory of Social Problems	7	4	1	2	3	1	3
Methods of Research	10	3	7	0	9	0	1
Social Statistics	10	1	8	1	5	2	3
Sociometry	11	5	5	1	10	1	0
Social Psychology	27	16	7	4	14	6	7
Sociology and Psychiatry	7	4	0	3	4	2	1
Social Biology	28	4	21	3	9	11	8
Human Ecology	15	7	6	2	8	2	5
Rural Sociology	40	1	35	4	26	8	6
The Community	36	5	19	12	16	12	8
The Family	27	14	10	3	19	4	4
Political Sociology	19	13	3	3	14	3	2
Sociology of Religion	7	3	3	1	3	3	1
Criminology	16	6	6	4	10	3	3
Sociology and Social Work	11	2	8	1	6	4	1
Educational Sociology	17	9	6	2	12	3	2

¹ Tabulation of responses to "Who is financing your project; who is directing it?"

Summary. If the typical project can be defined in terms of majority responses to the census items, such a project would be one which is allocated to a single section, which is reported as testing hypotheses, which uses documentary sources, which does not analyze local data, which reports its conclusions as a general summary or as a specific generalization or both, and which is self-directed.

Among some of the sections there is a core of projects which are homogeneous with respect to a larger number of items. The clearest case is that of Rural Sociology. Here the majority of projects are similar to the general type outlined above in indicating a single section choice, in reporting hypotheses tested, and in reporting the form in which conclusions are stated. In addition, a majority of projects report using sampling, using nondocumentary sources including interview and questionnaire data, using local data, using statistical analysis, and receiving outside financial support. Other sections which are similar to Rural Sociology, both in the number of majority responses and in the configuration of such responses, are Methods of Research, Sociometry, and Sociology and Social Work.

The section on History and Theory, which presents a somewhat smaller number of

majority responses than Rural Sociology, does give some indication of a different type of pattern. This section conforms to the general pattern with respect to section choice and direction, but diverges on the question of testing hypotheses. The majority of projects use data from documentary sources but use neither interview nor questionnaire data, make nonstatistical analyses of nonlocal data, and are self-financed.

Needless to say, the foregoing analysis is highly approximate and tentative. The limitations of the data have already been pointed out, and the relevance of some of

TABLE 10. RELATION OF PROJECTS TO THE NATIONAL EMERGENCY¹

Sections	Total	Projects Reported Motivated by Needs Thereof			Projects Reported Motivated by Research Opportunities Made Available Thereby			Projects Reported Motivated by Data Made Available Thereby		
		Yes	No	No Response	Yes	No	No Response	Yes	No	No Response
All Sections	314	68	200	46	34	194	86	29	196	89
History and Theory	26	5	17	4	4	16	6	4	16	6
Theory of Social Problems	7	3	3	1	2	3	2	2	3	2
Methods of Research	10	2	8	0	2	7	1	0	8	2
Social Statistics	10	2	7	1	2	7	1	1	7	2
Sociometry	11	4	7	0	1	7	3	1	7	3
Social Psychology	27	6	16	5	2	15	10	1	16	10
Sociology and Psychiatry	7	1	4	2	1	5	1	1	5	1
Social Biology	28	9	14	5	6	13	9	6	13	9
Human Ecology	15	1	10	4	2	10	3	1	10	4
Rural Sociology	40	6	30	4	3	26	11	2	26	12
The Community	36	5	24	7	1	24	11	1	24	11
The Family	27	4	18	5	1	18	8	1	18	8
Political Sociology	19	8	10	1	5	10	4	6	10	3
Sociology of Religion	7	0	5	2	0	5	2	0	5	2
Criminology	16	1	13	2	0	13	3	0	13	3
Sociology and Social Work	11	5	5	1	1	4	6	1	4	6
Educational Sociology	17	6	9	2	1	11	5	1	11	5

¹ Tabulation of responses to "Is your project related in any way to the national emergency, such as motivated by needs thereof, by research opportunities made available thereby, or by data made available thereby?"

the bases of classification is questionable. It does, however, suggest the possibility of classifying projects into a limited number of distinct and relatively homogeneous types. Such a procedure could be made useful only if greater enthusiasm and care in filling out the questionnaire were exercised by the members and if questions were

framed in terms of a universe of discourse common to the membership. A classificatory device of this sort would seem to have several advantages. It would bring together all those projects in the various fields of social research presenting common methodological problems, it would facilitate a more useful statistical analysis of the returns, and, remaining constant over a period of years, would make possible fairly precise conclusions as to trends in the field.

THE 1941 CENSUS OF RESEARCH

HISTORY AND THEORY OF SOCIOLOGY

(See also: 28, 30, 33, 181, 245, 250, 252, 300, 305.)

1. **The Theoretical Setting for a Study of the Secular Mentality.** Harry Alpert, 5514 Blackstone Ave., Chicago, Ill. Analysis of biographical and autobiographical materials for the classification of concept of secular mentality and evaluation of its usefulness in urban sociology.
2. **The Concept of Social Group.** Read Bain, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. Analysis of the literature on group and attempt to clarify the concept.
3. **The Language of Sociology.** Robert Bierstedt, Bard College, Annandale-on-Hudson, New York. Critique of operationalism and operationalist concepts.
4. **Man—The Unique.** Rudolph M. Binder, 157 West 57th St., New York, N. Y. Thesis that a successful social order uses the unique capacities which all human beings possess.
5. **Some Recent Sociological Implications of the Culture-Cycle Theory.** Herbert A. Bloch, St. Lawrence University, Canton, N. Y. Reappraisal of culture-cycle theory from recent research in social psychology and sociology and reformulation of logico-empirical method.
6. **The Method and Theory of Acculturation.** Leonard Bloom, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio. Analysis of literature and field work among Eastern Cherokee.
7. **A System of a Sociology of Art.** Joseph H. Bunzel, 1215 Eutaw Place, Baltimore, Md. Qualitative and quantitative classification of works of art by their techniques; a new social typology.
8. **The Enlarged Function of Science in Social Control Today.** Charles J. Bushnell, University of Toledo, Toledo, Ohio. New classification of elementary human interests and functions; tables of local and national data on expenditures are arranged to show proportions of pathological and normal community activities.
9. **An Analysis of the Meaning of the Concept of Caste.** Oliver C. Cox, Wiley College, Marshall, Texas. An examination of census data, historical documents, and field studies among East Indians in Trinidad, British West Indies.
10. **Disorganization in Contemporary American Institutions, and Implications for Social Control.** John F. Cuber, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio. Analysis of data from interviews, participant observation, and documentary sources.
11. **Theory of Definition, Meaning, Causation, etc., in Social and Political Science; Application of Semiology to Sociology.** Lewis Dexter, 536 Pleasant St., Belmont, Mass. Resolution of current controversies by linguistic techniques of the semiologists.
12. **Christian Social Thought, 30-180 A.D.** Paul Hanly Furfey, Catholic University of America, Brookland, D. C. Data include all the extant Christian literature of the period.
13. **Cultural Similarities in Japan and Oceania.** Douglas G. Haring, Syracuse University, Syracuse, N. Y. An examination of reports of studies in Polynesia and historical documents from Japan.
14. **Theory of Social Institutions: Implementation; Ecology; Secondary Group; and Social Disorganization.** J. O. Hertzler, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebr. Analysis of basic theoretical treatments in social science literature.
15. **Analysis of Systems of Social Control in Five Cultures: English Feudalism, 1100-1350; Hindu Caste; The Navaho; Nazi Totalitarianism; and American Democracy.** A. B. Hollingshead, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind. The hypothesis is that each socio-cultural system integrates behavior by training people to follow cultural usages and values.
16. **The Concept of Social Interaction in Sociological Literature.** Samuel Haig Jameson,

University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon. Analysis of letters from representative sociologists and social psychologists, and of professional monographs.

17. **Variations in Certain Classes of Social Action Systems in Relation to Variations in the Means-End Fields.** Carl S. Joslyn, University of Maryland, College Park, Md. The hypothesis is that there is a tendency for the structure of certain classes of social action systems to adjust itself to changes in the means-end requirements.

18. **Preliterates of the Pacific.** William Kirk, 705 Indian Hill Boulevard, Claremont, Calif. A comparison of social institutions, social customs, social change, and social control, based on field work in Australia, New Zealand, Hokkaido, Formosa, and Guatemala.

19. **The Social Thought of the German Catholic Central Verein.** Sister Mary Liguori, Mundelein College, Chicago, Ill. The pronouncements of representatives of the organization have been grouped with reference to their relevancy to social institutions and noninstitutional controls.

20. **A Survey of Fundamental Change in Man's Basic Behavior during the Past 50 or 75 Years.** Charles W. Margold, 401 D St. N.E., Washington, D. C. A survey and analysis of such changes as revealed in all available demographic data.

21. **The Culture of Social Classes.** John W. McConnell, New York University, University Heights, New York, N. Y. Historical survey of the evolution of occupational groups in New Haven, Connecticut, and description of culture of wage earners and white-collar workers in New Haven.

22. **American Pragmatism: A Social-Historical Examination of an Intellectual Movement.** C. Wright Mills, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin. The design of a concrete study answering the question: What factors in American culture "influenced" the inception, the course, and the selective acceptance of pragmatism?

23. **Rates of Change of Material and Nonmaterial Culture.** M. F. Nimkoff, Bucknell University, Lewisburg, Pa. An analysis of new words since 1930, to test the hypothesis that the material culture is changing more rapidly than the nonmaterial culture.

24. **The Social Effects of Invention.** W. F. Ogburn, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

25. **Evolution of Culture.** Maurice Parmelee, 2410 11th St., Arlington, Va. An attempt to trace the course of cultural evolution as shown by the major discoveries and inventions; historical, anthropological, and sociological data are used.

26. **The Suitability of Democratic Representative Government for Present-Day China.** Maurice T. Price, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill. Analysis of general historical data, including biographies, newspapers, material (recording of) from direct observation, etc.

THEORY OF SOCIAL PROBLEMS

(See also: 8, 11, 18, 23, 105, 208, 214, 250, 255, 256.)

27. **Elements in the Basic Pattern of a Stable Social Order.** Charles J. Bushnell, University of Toledo, Toledo, Ohio. Analysis of human motivation by study of social movements such as social credit, technocracy, and other ideologies of the changing social order.

28. **Valuation and Democratic Thinking.** Charles J. Bushnell, University of Toledo, Toledo, Ohio. Analysis of relevant professional literature on the relation of basic human interests to democratic thinking.

29. **Methods of Predicting Inventions, Applications of Science, and Their Social Effects.** S. Colum Gilfillan, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill. Analysis of predictions from 1740 to 1941, mostly in the field of sociology.

30. **Types of Social Problems: Race Relations; Mental Disease; War and National Defense.** Henry J. Meyer, State College of Washington, Pullman, Wash. Using documentary materials to establish the hypothesis that these situations offer a variety of conflicts of value and interest which appear as social problems.

31. **Class in American Society Today: The Socioeconomic and Sociopsychological Structure of the Community.** Charles Hunt Page, 34 West 69th St., New York, N. Y. An examination of empirical field studies and theoretical literature.

32. **Youthful Violators of Federal Revenue Laws on Probation in a Specific Cultural Area.** Sanford Winston, State College, University of North Carolina, Raleigh, N. C. Analysis of all male violators (16 to 25 years of age) of Federal Revenue Laws in eastern North Carolina. 1936-1941.

33. **Critique of the Literature of Social Adjustment.** Verne Wright, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa. Critical treatment of definitions, theories, and instrumental procedures; emphasis on instruments for the measurement of social adjustment.

METHODS OF SOCIAL RESEARCH

(See also: 11, 18, 20, 44, 54, 57, 61, 63, 71, 81, 94, 103, 117, 118, 139, 147, 148, 208, 217, 243, 275, 307.)

34. **Methodological Problems of Control in Matched Samples: Measurement of the Effects of Public Housing.** F. Stuart Chapin, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn. Partial and multiple correlation analysis to answer the question: If partial correlation analysis is used to pretest the utility of controls in matched samples, what effects are found on (1) the content and generality of null hypotheses; (2) sampling procedures?
35. **Consistency of Questionnaire Responses.** John F. Cuber, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio. Identical questions interspersed among numerous irrelevant questions submitted to the same 300 informants upon three occasions at two-week intervals.
36. **Characteristics of Census Enumerators and the Quantity and Quality of Work.** C. L. Dedrick, Bureau of Census, Washington, D. C. Analysis of questionnaires returned by a 25 percent sample of enumerators, test results of a subsample, production records, and schedules turned in by these enumerators.
37. **The Relative Efficiency of Different Sampling Units for Several Kinds of Statistics.** *Idem.* How best to design a field sample to obtain a maximum amount of population information within specific limitations.
38. **A Study of Typology.** Morton F. Fosberg, 559 West 188th St., New York, N. Y. How typology has been used in psychology and sociology; a search for useful, verifiable typological schemes.
39. **Survey of Research in Recreation.** Myron Heidingsfield, New York University, New York, N. Y. To define the problems in recreation; to indicate gaps in recreation research; to evaluate the problems for solution by private and public agencies; to prepare a complete bibliography, 1930-1940.
40. **The Relationship of Medical Services Received, Disability and Economic Status.** Ernest Manheim, University of Kansas City, Kansas City, Mo. Analysis of 15,000 questionnaires on disability, medical services received, costs of treatment, income, etc.; and 6000 schedules on cases of reported scarlet fever and appendicitis.
41. **The Standardization of the Farm Family Socioeconomic Status Scale for Use in Other Rural Areas.** William H. Sewell, Oklahoma A. & M. College, Stillwater, Okla. Several thousand copies of the scale from various regions of the United States. The criterion of internal consistency to test the diagnostic capacity of the items; correlation analysis and variance tests to determine the validity and reliability of the scale.
42. **A Quantitative Analysis of the Service to Tuberculous Patients by the Local (Pittsburgh, Pa.) Public Health Nursing Association.** Gladys R. Walker, 221 North Homewood Ave. Pittsburgh, Pa. An illustration of the practical application of quantitative techniques in evaluating qualitative factors.
43. **Administration of Conference and Group Discussion Situation.** Hobart N. Young, Stanford University, Calif. Data are records from the normal processes of management in given conferences, plus reports from participant observers and special staff services to conferences.

SOCIAL STATISTICS

(See also: 40, 61, 62, 81, 103, 115, 118, 195, 243, 282.)

44. **An Estimation of the 1910 and 1920 Population of the Census Tracts Used for the 1940 Census.** Ralph C. Fletcher, Federation of Social Agencies, Pittsburgh, Pa. Enumeration district data for 1910 and 1920 and block data for 1934 are used.
45. **The Reliability of School Census Data for Estimating Population by Census Tracts between Census Years.** *Idem.* Population in 1930 and births and deaths 1930-1940 to estimate the population for 1940 in each census tract. This estimate will be compared with school census and the population census of 1940.

46. **Number and Percent of the 1930 Incorporated Places Which Lost Inhabitants by 1940.** J. M. Gillette, University of North Dakota, University Station, N. D. An analysis of questionnaire and interview data in addition to basic census data.
47. **Family Research Opportunities and the 1940 Census.** Paul C. Glick, Census Bureau, Washington, D. C. Use of unpublished 1930 census data to delineate significant family types in statistical terms.
48. **Family Trends in the United States, 1890 to 1940.** *Idem.* Population and number of families classified by region, size of place, farm residence, color, nativity, and tenure of home, 1890 to 1940. More detailed data on families and population for states and cities related to social and economic indices, 1920 to 1940.
49. **Ethnic Groups in the Economic Life of Connecticut.** Samuel Koenig, 310 Norton St., New Haven, Conn. A three percent sample of ten ethnic groups in the six largest cities of the state are classified according to occupation.
50. **Indices of Human Welfare in Rural Areas.** D. E. Lindstrom, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill. Presentation of socioeconomic data on a county basis for the use of land planning and other social planning work.
51. **The Relationship between Indices of Social Disorganization.** Ernest R. Mowrer, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill. Analysis of community rates for twelve indices of social disorganization in Chicago by years for 1929-1935, to test the hypothesis that current indices of social disorganization are unsatisfactory due to their instability singly and in combination.
52. **Social Classes in a Democracy; Social Stratification in the United States.** Elbridge Sibley, Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Maine. Analysis in terms of intercorrelations, trends in indices of vertical mobility, and distribution by race, occupation, plane of living, education, etc.
53. **Urban Density.** Howard Woolston, University of Washington, Seattle, Wash. An examination of the relation between density and radius in American metropolitan districts; statistics of area and population are used to find a rational equation satisfying statistics.

SOCIOMETRY

54. **Standardization of a Scale Measuring Social Insight by Means of Verbal Response.** F. Stuart Chapin, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn. Statistical analysis of responses of 215 men and women.
55. **Social Psychological Analysis of a Small Community.** Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr., and Harold F. Kaufman, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y. The hypothesis that attitudes concerning social relations are correlated with class status is tested in the analysis of questionnaire, attitude test, interview data, in relation to ratings of social status.
56. **A Multiple-Factor Analysis of White-Negro Experiences.** Robert N. Ford and D. E. V. Henderson, University of Alabama, University, Ala. Data derived from experience-scale responses of college students.
57. **The Comparison of Widely Separated Rural High School Groups by Means of an Attitude Scale.** J. E. Hulett, Jr., University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill. Analysis of data from four small towns in Iowa, Kansas, Georgia, and New Hampshire demonstrated that the technique used in validating this scale (criterion of internal consistency—critical ratio method) did not yield a scale capable of quantifying attitude differentials between groups with dissimilar cultural backgrounds.
58. **Individual Differences in Personal Relationships.** Helen H. Jennings, 405 West 118th St., New York, N. Y. Sociometric techniques used to clarify the nature and extent of choice and rejection between individuals, the bases upon which choice and rejection arise, and the phenomena of leadership and isolation in relation to individual differences.
59. **A Scale for the Measurement of Maladjustment by Comparison between Self-Ratings and Rating by Others.** E. Kenneth Karcher, Jr., 14 Fairlawn Ave., Albany, N. Y. Analysis of data from 100 scales with 11 trait categories to test the hypothesis that when there exists a marked difference between a person's self-characterization and that of his group, there are likely to be maladjustments within the individual.
60. **Prestige and Friendship Patterns in a Rural Township.** George A. Lundberg, Bennington College, Bennington, Vt. Scores on the Chapin and Sewell scales of socio-economic status, and interview data are used to test the hypothesis that education and other cultural possessions are the principal basis of prestige in this area.

61. **The Measurement of National Morale.** Delbert C. Miller, State College of Washington, Pullman, Wash. Construction of a morale scale on the assumption that national morale is shown by: belief in superiority of social structure of ingroup; willingness to sacrifice personal goals for the achievement of national goals; confidence in the competence of national leaders; belief that resources are available to hurl back external threats; goals set out for achievement are permanent and will neither be lost in war nor in war's aftermath.

62. **The Changing Status of Japanese-Americans, with Special Reference to the Influence of International Relations between Japan and the United States, 1939.** John A. Rademaker, Bates College, Lewiston, Maine. Use of newspaper materials, correspondence, and especially devised measures of opinion, social distance, acculturation, and overt activity.

63. **A Scale of Status of Occupations.** Mapheus Smith, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kan. Analysis of more than 300 ratings on a list of 100 occupations in an attempt to quantify the position of occupations on a scale of fixed limits.

64. **Measurement of Sociation and Status.** Leslie Day Zeleny, State Teachers' College, St. Cloud, Minnesota. An interpretation in mathematical formulas of a large number of interpersonal attitudes in classroom groups.

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

(See also: 1, 7, 11, 16, 33, 36, 54, 55, 56, 59, 60, 61, 62, 64, 94, 95, 117, 122, 147, 148, 193, 211, 222, 226, 233, 238, 243, 250, 251, 252, 269, 299, 347.)

65. **Student Opinion on College Athletics.** Read Bain, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. An analysis of questionnaire responses from a rough cross-sectional sample of the whole student body at Miami University.

66. **Children's Language as Related to Their Play Activities.** Steuart Henderson Britt and Sidney Q. Janus, George Washington University, Washington, D. C. Statistical analysis of recorded conversations of children in a variety of situations in various sections of the country.

67. **Conformity of Labor Newspapers with Respect to the A.F. of L.-C.I.O. Conflict.** Steuart Henderson Britt and Royce L. Lowry, George Washington University, Washington, D. C. An application of J-curve analysis to 1288 issues of 177 labor newspapers.

68. **Baroque Created America.** Joseph H. Bunzel, 1215 Eutaw Place, Baltimore, Md. Problem of the founding traditions of the American continent in general and the United States in particular is attacked by a full synchronization of political, economic, and artistic events for the settled world between 1500 and 1780.

69. **A Research on Imitative Behavior.** John Dollard (joint author with Neal E. Miller), Institute of Human Relations, 333 Cedar St., New Haven, Conn. Analysis of data from experiments with children to test the hypothesis that imitative behavior can be learned and unlearned, and to specify and define submechanisms of imitation. Consideration of experimental findings in relation to social science data in the fields of crowd behavior and diffusion.

70. **The Sociological Factors in Ability and Mediocrity.** Robert E. L. Faris, Bryn Mawr College, Bryn Mawr, Pa. A consideration of the hypothesis that sociological processes produce mediocrity in the middle part of the population as well as talent at the top and low mentality at the bottom.

71. **A Controlled Analysis of the Relationship of Active Participation in Extracurricular Activities to the Scholastic and Social Adjustment of College Students.** Reuben L. Hill, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis. A comparison of grades and adjustment inventory scores of an experimental group encouraged by systematic induction into campus activities with those of a control group not so encouraged. Groups matched for 16 factors, such as age, sex, intelligence, self-support, physical condition, etc.

72. **The Role of the Aged in the Ethnic Minority Groups.** Heinrich Infeld, City College, New York, N. Y. A typological and statistical analysis of questionnaire, interview, and other relevant data on various minority groups.

73. **Radio Policy and Special Interest Groups.** Louis W. Ingram, College of Wooster, Wooster, Ohio. Analysis of proceedings of the Federal Communications Commission, National Association of Broadcasters, American Society of Composers, Authors, and Publishers, bar associations, etc., and radio broadcasting industry statistics.

74. **Social and Economic Effects of the Present War.** R. M. Johnson, Lake Erie College, Painesville, Ohio.

75. **Children's Interests and Attitudes as Related to Socioeconomic Factors.** Harold E. Jones, 2683 Shasta Road, Berkeley, Calif. Analysis of responses on interest tests, attitudes tests, and activity inventories of children in the 7th, 8th, and 9th grades in two contrasting socioeconomic groups.

76. **Main Currents in American Army Thought.** Fenton Keyes, Colgate University, Hamilton, N. Y. An inductive analysis along the lines of Parrington, Gabriel, Leyburn, and others, of documents, government documents, biography, articles, and other expressions of attitudes of the American army.

77. **Topical Summary of Current Literature: Social Influences Affecting the Behavior of the Preschool Child (1925-1940).** Ruth Pearson Koshuk, 5524 Ellis Avenue, Chicago, Ill. Analysis of all books and articles dealing specifically with the social environment in relation to the behavior of young children. A brief abstract of each publication, giving purpose, methods, subjects, and main conclusions.

78. **Social Roles.** Alfred McClung Lee, New York University, Washington Square, New York, N. Y.

79. **The Psychological Circularity of Social Reform.** *Idem.*

80. **Habits and Attitudes of Upland Arkansas Farmers.** William H. Metzler, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Ark. An analysis of questionnaire and interview data on farm enterprise, family labor, education, and social participation, classified according to tenure, wealth, education, and size of enterprise.

81. **Social Factors Related to National Morale.** Delbert C. Miller, State College of Washington, Pullman, Wash. Analysis of 100-300 cases to discover factors related to national morale.

82. **Language, Actions, and Situations.** C. Wright Mills, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis. An attempt to construct a scheme for the objectification of several types of meaningful action. Lying, secrecy, and hypocrisy are to be analyzed within a framework of situated action and differential vocabularies.

83. **Sex Mores and Social Structure.** George P. Murdock, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut. Based on cultural data from 200 different societies.

84. **The Western-Returned and Modern (Westernized)-Educated Chinese Student, Up to 1925.** Maurice T. Price, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill. Analysis of general historical data, including newspapers, biographies, observed behavior, and overheard conversation.

85. **The Social Act.** Mapheus Smith, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kan.

86. **Adult Education and the Negro.** Bernhard J. Stern, Columbia University, New York, N. Y. Analysis of questionnaires, interviews, and documentary materials.

87. **Processes of Technological Innovation in Communication.** *Idem.* Analysis of documentary materials.

88. **Technology and Social Change.** *Idem.* Analysis of interview and documentary material.

89. **The Habitual Criminal—A Psychological Definition.** J. Ellis Voss, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa. Clarification of the concept of the habitual criminal from point of view of both psychology and law.

90. **Prejudice at the University Level.** *Idem.* Use of 1500 questionnaires and 200 scale tests to test the hypothesis that prejudice is the outgrowth of fear at the level of competition.

91. **Social Effects of Political Propaganda.** Douglas Waples, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill. An analysis of interview responses obtained by Roper's organization in Lake Erie County, Ohio, under the direction of Paul F. Lazarsfeld; and analysis of newspapers, magazines, and radio broadcasts during the campaign of 1940.

SOCIOLOGY AND PSYCHIATRY

(See also: 58, 64, 233, 238, 243, 250.)

92. **Tests as Diagnostic Instruments in Clinical Practice.** Clairette P. Armstrong, 140 East 46th Street, New York, N. Y. A comparison of the 1916 Stanford-Binet with more recent psychological tests, chiefly from the qualitative aspect.

93. **Kymograph Records of Neuromuscular (Respiratory) Patterns in Relation to Behavior Disorders.** Trigant Burrow, The Lifwynn Foundation, 27 East 37th Street, New York, N. Y. Part of an investigation by Trigant Burrow, William Galt, and Hans Syz, reported in last year's census.

94. **Community Readjustment of Patients Returned from State Hospitals.** Arthur Vincent Huffman, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill. Analysis of the personal experiences of the individuals under study, autobiographical materials, discussions with relatives, friends, and business associates, and correspondence.

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96. **Drug Psychoses.** Elizabeth Proehl Moore, 112 Warwick Road, West Newton, Mass. A comparison of available features of social, hospital, and drug histories of various drug groups represented in abstracts of mental hospital patients in Massachusetts, admitted and discharged 1917-1938.

97. **Premarital Problems of College Students.** Harriet R. Mowrer, 727 Monticello Place, Evanston, Ill. Case studies of college students are examined to test the hypothesis that premarital problems of college students are the reflection of personality trends and of early family experiences.

98. **Release of Tensions of Service Men and Their Families.** Pauline V. Young, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, Calif. Interviews, letters, life histories of service men and their families are analyzed with respect to their attitudes toward separation, new organization of family life, new habits of living, altered standard of living, changes in the social and political institutions, changes in the mores, moods, and morals.

POPULATION

(See also: 18, 20, 44, 45, 47, 48, 52, 127, 128, 131, 152, 207, 244.)

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125. **The Relation between the Number of Children Born to Native White Wives in Indianapolis and Various Factors.** *Idem.* Data include, For the husband and wife in each married couple, age, state of birth, number of times married, school grade completed, and religious affiliation (or background); for each couple, year married, current dwelling tenure, current monthly rental, and number years lived in cities of 25,000 or over; for each wife, number of children born and now living.

126. **The Social Demography of American Villages and Hamlets with Special Emphasis upon the Southeastern Region.** Vincent Heath Whitney, University of Maine, Orono, Maine. Measurement of the function and direction of social change on the village-hamlet level; analysis of a wide variety of demographic data for every village and hamlet in ten counties of North Carolina.

HUMAN ECOLOGY

(See also: 18, 44, 45, 95, 104, 117, 118, 121, 126, 159, 161, 167, 179, 180, 195, 207, 208, 251, 276, 290.)

127. **Recent Social Changes in the Southern Appalachian Mountains.** Paul F. Cressey, Norton, Mass. The role of new roads, centralized schools, the radio, and other means of communication in breaking down isolation and producing rapid modernization.

128. **The Position of the Negro in the Economic Structure of Rhode Island.** Clarence Glick, Brown University, Providence, R. I. Determination of economic and employment conditions among Negroes of the state; sampling of opinions among both whites and Negroes on the economic position of Negroes in the state.

129. **Social Factors Related to Erosion in the Scantic River Valley, Connecticut.** J. L. Hypes, Storrs, Conn. Questionnaire and interview responses of families in erosion areas.

130. **Definition of "City" and Correlation of City Size with Urban Phenomena.** Fenton Keyes, Colgate University, Hamilton, N. Y. Data on urban phenomena from census and other sources (educational, recreational, governmental, occupational, retail, social welfare, communication) arranged according to all communities of 2000 or over in 1930.

131. **Population Trends: Differential Birth and Death Rates, Residential Mobility.** Ernest Manheim, University of Kansas City, Kansas City, Mo. Construction of diverse indexes of population trends by census tracts; birth and death rates correlated with nativity and rental data.

132. **Mexican Migratory Workers of South Texas.** Selden C. Menefee, WPA Division of Research, 1734 New York Avenue, N.W., Washington, D. C. An analysis of materials collected on family size and characteristics, migratory routes, and incomes during 1938, working conditions, health, education, etc., by 300 interviews with Mexican families of Crystal City, Texas.

133. **Pattern of Settlement and Segregation of the Jewish Population of Detroit, Michigan.** Henry J. Meyer, State College of Washington, Pullman, Wash. Community pattern is established by distributional analyses and correlation techniques applied to a sample of Jewish population. Data obtained from the Michigan Census of Population and Unemployment of 1935 by a tested method of identifying Jewish schedules by personal and family names.

134. **Urban and Suburban Patterns of Personal Disorganization.** Ernest R. Mowrer, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill. Analysis of data from insanity and suicide records from Cook County, Illinois, totaling some 45,000 cases; data from house-to-house canvass upon mobility, family relationship, social isolation, in areas of extreme rates—high and low.

135. **Ecology of Feeble-mindedness in Milwaukee.** Marguerite Reuss, Marquette University, Milwaukee, Wis.

136. **Ecology of Mental Disease in Milwaukee.** *Idem.*

137. **An Ecological Study of Lexington, Kentucky.** Irwin T. Sanders, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Ky. Association between areas of city and indices of social pathology, and the location and characteristics of any urban "neighborhoods."

138. **The Ecology of Voting Behavior.** Calvin F. Schmid, University of Washington, Seattle, Wash. Correlation analysis, partial and multiple, of unpublished voting statistics and special government tabulations of housing and population statistics.

139. **Land Values as an Ecological Index.** *Idem.* Statistical analysis of data from field study and documentary sources.

140. **Ocean City: A Satellite Community.** J. Ellis Voss, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa. To test the hypothesis that unique ecological configuration results from "cyclical mobility" of business enterprises and seasonal variation of population.

141. **Divorce Rates in the Counties of the State of Washington.** H. Ashley Weeks (co-director, Carl Dent), State College of Washington, Pullman, Wash. The association between the divorce rates and social factors, such as the sex ratio, the percentage urban, families with no children, Catholics, illiterate, unemployed, etc., will be tested by correlation techniques.

RURAL SOCIOLOGY

(See also: 20, 41, 55, 100, 115, 127, 129, 192, 198, 199, 202, 213, 267, 270, 285, 289, 298.)

142. **Social Participation in Formal Organizations.** W. A. Anderson, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y. Over 800 schedules for farm families on their participation in organizations that have officers and definite programs.

143. **Social Participation in Informal Organizations.** *Idem.* 400 schedules from farm families describing their informal social activities and their participation in unorganized group programs.

144. **Social Participation in Specific Organizations.** *Idem.* 800 schedules from farm families on the participation of family members in each of the following organizations: Farm Bureau, Home Bureau, 4-H Club.

145. **The Measurement of Social Participation.** *Idem.* Use of participation data collected for other participation analyses to establish a simple method for measuring social participation.

146. **Growth and Decline in American Villages, 1930-1940.** Edmund deS. Brunner, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y. Simple analysis with reference to size of village, location, region, distance from cities, etc.

147. **Level of Living, Social Participation, and Social Adjustment: A Study of 299 Ohio Farm Families.** H. R. Cottam, Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa. This study based on 299 personally-conducted interviews, tests the hypothesis that these three aspects of standard of living are interrelated.

148. **Rural Housing in Pennsylvania: (1) Physical Facilities and Sanitation, (2) Social Adjustment of Occupants, (3) Relation of Housing to Other Factors.** *Idem.* Analysis of interviews of 500-600 rural families (farm and nonfarm), questionnaires administered to rural school children (about 10,000), and special tabulation of 1940 U. S. Housing Census.

149. **Community Adaptations to Population Changes: A Case Study of a Middle Virginia Community—Beaverdam, Virginia.** Allen D. Edwards, Box 528, Blacksburg, Va. 5,000 Census records 1860-1930, are analyzed; ownership history of 100 contiguous tracts of land traced, 1870-1938; 200 field schedules, newspaper files, organization and relief records, and secondary data are utilized.

150. **Social Factors Affecting the Degree of Responsiveness to Agricultural Extension Work in Michigan.** Duane L. Gibson, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Mich. Interview schedules from a sampling of farmers to determine the clientele of the extension agent and to study the effect of certain sociopsychological factors upon participation.

151. **Land Use and Socioeconomic Submergence in the Plains States.** J. M. Gillette, University of North Dakota, University Station, N. D.

152. **Scholastic Achievement and Occupational Choice.** Noel P. Gist, C. T. Pihlblad, Cecil Gregory, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo. Scholarship records of approximately 5000 high school students, 1920-1930, in 94 rural communities of Missouri were secured. Follow-up investigation of the occupations of these individuals in 1938.

153. **The Social Factors in the Settlement of New Land in the Yazoo Mississippi Backwater Area.** Rudolf Heberle, Louisiana State University, University, La. Analysis of schedules on 200 new-ground-settler families.

154. **Acceptance of Approved Farming Practices among Farmers of Dutch Descent.** C. R. Hoffer, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Mich. Data on the culture characteristics, farming practices, and contacts with agricultural extension activities from 289 farmers (celery growers).

155. **Selected Sociological Phases of Cotton Production in the Hills and Delta of Louisiana.**

Roy E. Hyde, Southeastern Louisiana College, Hammond, La. Schedule responses and stenographic records of interviews for selected communities.

156. **The Adequacy of Institutional Facilities in Eddy County, New Mexico.** Sigurd Johansen, State College, N. M. Data on social and economic history and the growth, distribution, and composition of its population; delineation of communities; existing institutional facilities; the composition of households in selected community areas; social processes related to county planning and adequacy of institutional facilities.

157. **Attitude of Farmers toward a Cooperative Marketing Organization.** M. E. John, Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa. Interviews with 1256 farmers in ten communities concerning personal and environmental characteristics, participation in and knowledge of the cooperative.

158. **The Effect of Closing Rural Churches on the Participation in Church Programs.** *Idem.* Twenty-five parishes were studied. The families living in these areas who once attended these churches were interviewed.

159. **A Socioeconomic Survey of the Marshdwellers of Jefferson, Lafourche, Plaquemines, and St. Bernard Parishes (Counties) in Southeastern Louisiana, Who Earn Their Livelihood Fishing, Trapping, and Cultivating Oysters.** Edward J. Kammer, 3901 Harewood Road, N.E., Washington, D. C. Data collected by questionnaire and interview techniques.

160. **A Study of the Regions and Subregions in Pennsylvania.** R. W. Kerns, Rural Sociology Extension, Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa.

161. **Restudy of Neighborhood and Town-Country Relations over a Period of Twenty Years.** J. H. Kplb, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis. Analysis of schedule and interview data to test the hypothesis that neighborhoods are persisting but changing in type of functions and that rural life is centering more and more in its institutional aspects in the village and small town.

162. **The Man-Land Adjustment in Weld County, Colorado.** Olaf F. Larson, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Washington, D. C. Analysis of material of historical and statistical nature, showing adjustments in land use and giving insight into the man-land adjustment. Data include population, land patent records, land use, institutions related to use of land.

163. **Changes in the Numbers and Kinds of Rural Organizations in the State of Illinois during the Period 1930-1940.** D. E. Lindstrom, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.

164. **Human Elements in Land Use.** *Idem.* Relation between the extent of soil fertility and erosion and the movement and character of farm population. Data on the soil and its use, on farm management practice, and socioeconomic data on the families and communities are analyzed.

165. **Participation of Farm People in Rural Organizations.** *Idem.* Analysis of interview data to discover the relationships between tenure status, mobility, age, education, nationality, manner of spending time, socioeconomic status, and the extent to which farm people participate in rural organizations.

166. **Rural Organizations in the State of Illinois.** *Idem.* A survey of membership, activities, problems, purposes, projects, and accomplishments of rural organizations in the state of Illinois.

167. **Ross County Rural Youth Survey (Ohio).** A. R. Mangus, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. Analysis of 1602 schedules filled through interviews with individual youths, schedules dealing with farming opportunities for young men, and short schedules from migrant youth.

168. **Relation of Migration to the Socioeconomic Status of 1200 Oklahoma Farm Families.** Robert T. McMillan, 312½ Jefferson Street, Stillwater, Okla. Schedules on 1200 farm families in four representative counties in Oklahoma are analyzed, as to detailed migration histories, family composition, income, wealth, and level of living.

169. **The Migration of the Rural Population in Oklahoma, 1930-1940.** *Idem.* Complete enumeration of families in five representative Oklahoma townships from 1930 to 1940, inclusive, made by interview of residents themselves and of relatives and neighbors of former residents.

170. **Community and Population Aspects of County Planning.** William H. Metzler, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Ark. Analysis of family and community data to determine its usefulness to local farm and community leaders in planning their social and economic activities.

171. **Adjustment of Farm Families That Migrate to Cities.** *Idem.* Records analyzed to obtain reasons why the migrants moved, their income before and after leaving the farm, their housing and other facilities both rural and urban, and their community participation both in the country and in town.

172. **The Progress of Rural Rehabilitation Clients in Arkansas.** *Idem.* Analysis of data on type of farm, diversification, change in net worth, percentage of repayment, value of home-use products, kind and amount of livestock and farm equipment, value of products.

173. **Farm Trade Centers in Louisiana from 1930 to 1940.** Ralph W. Roberts, University, La. To show changes in services in trade centers as affected by improved transportation, competition from other and larger centers, incidence of local agencies of federal and state action programs, etc., the following data are analyzed: legal status, incidence of social institutions and professional services.

174. **Type of Families Residing on Marginal and Submarginal Land.** Dwight Sanderson, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y. Data from schedules concerning family composition, residential and occupational history, socioeconomic status, and participation in organizations for 200 families in one township have been collected.

175. **Mexican Rural Social Change as a Result of the Agrarian Revolution.** Clarence Senior, University of Kansas City, Kansas City, Mo. Analysis of documentary fieldwork, and participant observation materials.

176. **The Social Correlatives of Farm Tenure Status in Oklahoma.** William H. Sewell, Oklahoma A. & M. College, Stillwater, Okla. Data from 1256 survey schedules giving tenure status, socioeconomic status, level of living, housing, family composition, social participation, and social mobility, 1937-1938, taken in four representative Oklahoma counties.

177. **The Relation of Agriculture and Industry in Henry County, Virginia.** Harold Smith, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg, Va.

178. **Defense Activities near Radford, Virginia, and Their Effects on Local Communities.** Leland B. Tate, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg, Va. Examination of zones of influence and sample effects on local communities of traffic, temporary residents, housing, labor shifts, recreation, etc.

179. **Arizona Farm Leases under Irrigation.** E. D. Tetreau, University of Arizona, Tucson, Ariz. A tabulation of leases prepared by government agencies, insurance companies, and other lessors, and preparation of a flexible lease form.

180. **The Community in National Defense: A Part of a Larger Study of Processes and Procedures in Community Organization.** *Idem.* Questionnaire and interview data will be analyzed to show participation levels by occupational and economic groups within a community, and communities will be compared with respect to the variables indicated.

181. **Pioneer Social Adaptation in Lincoln County, Washington, 1880-1900.** Fred R. Yoder, State College of Washington, Pullman, Wash. Analysis of uniform extensive interviews with fifty pioneer farmers.

THE COMMUNITY

(See also: 11, 18, 20, 27, 44, 45, 52, 55, 58, 60, 62, 88, 105, 117, 128, 133, 137, 140, 149, 150, 154, 167, 170, 285, 304.)

182. **Survey and Analysis of the Character and Problems of the Industrial Areas of the Nation.** Saul D. Alinsky, 8 South Michigan, Chicago, Ill. Data include materials on all phases of life of the industrial areas.

183. **The Advertising Industry in America: A Study of Competition and Social Control.** Edward Jackson Baur, Dillard University, New Orleans, La. Data obtained from interviews, trade journals, reports of trade associations, and writings of advertising men.

184. **The Siouan Tribes of Missouri: A Study in Archaeology, Ethno-History, and Acculturation.** Brewton Berry, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo. The history, culture, and acculturation of the two Siouan peoples (Osage and Missouri), a historical and cultural reconstruction.

185. **A General Community Survey of Kent, Ohio.** Leonard Bloom and Edwin M. Lemert, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio. Use of interview and documentary data.

186. **A Social and Economic Study of 7,000 Substandard Homes To Establish Norms for Low-Rent Housing Project (Illinois 12-1), Decatur, Illinois.** Edward S. Boyer, James Millikin

University, Decatur, Ill. Use of interview schedule materials to establish proper norms for tenant selection and rent levels.

187. **The Race Problem in Puerto Rico.** William D. Brown, Howard University, Washington, D. C.

188. **Studies Leading to Redevelopment of the St. Marks Area on the Lower East Side of the City of New York.** Edwin S. Burdell, Cooper Union, Cooper Square, New York City. An analysis of population and other relevant data for the area.

189. **Factors Related to the Structure and Function of High School Communities in Rural Virginia.** Charles Burr, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg, Va.

190. **Community Insecurity—Study of a Declining Lumber Community.** David B. Carpenter, University of Washington, Seattle, Wash. Quantitative data on family residence and occupational histories, social interaction, ambitions, explanations of community crisis, favored future community courses of action, as related to socioeconomic-status groups, are used to reconstruct the sequence of events following mill closure, emphasizing differential class and group behavior.

191. **A Community Reconstruction Program for East China.** H. M. I. Chow, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg, Va.

192. **Community Action: Structure and Processes.** Lloyd Allen Cook, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. Descriptive study and analysis of experimental programs based on 100 cases collected over past three years of field consultant work on school and community programs, plus problem-situations encountered at summer workshops.

193. **The Social Status of the Negro in Pasadena, California.** James E. Crimi, 901½ W. 35th Place, Los Angeles, Calif. An examination of the occupational position, delinquency, infectious diseases, and dependency of the Negro in Pasadena, and of Negro-White relationships.

194. **Employment and Personal Histories of the Stranded Workers of Clinton, Massachusetts, from 1930 to 1938.** Horace B. Davis, 309 Lake Avenue, Newton Highlands, Mass. Analysis of about 750 questionnaires assembled by WPA workers.

195. **Distribution and Characteristics of Juvenile Court Delinquency Cases during the Period 1930 to 1939.** Ralph C. Fletcher, Federation of Social Agencies, Pittsburgh, Pa. A comparison of the characteristics of six classes of delinquency case rate areas in Pittsburgh, using such indices as home ownership, relief cases, duration of occupancy of dwelling units, infant deaths, and percentage of dwelling units with automobiles.

196. **Neighborhood and Nonneighborhood Areas in Providence, Rhode Island.** Harold A. Gibbard, Brown University, Providence, R. I. Analysis of residential propinquity of people applying for marriage licenses and spatial distribution of membership of various organizations to test the hypothesis that the frequency and intensity of personal neighborhood contacts vary widely between sections of a city.

197. **Cheboygan: A Study of Community Adaptation to Population Changes.** Duane L. Gibson, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Mich. Data collected on the following items: the changing economic base; the shift in numbers and types of population; the ecological changes; adjustments in religious organizations; rates of delinquency and relief; adjustments in methods of government, in fraternal organizations, in educational methods, and in folkways, mores, and community morale.

198. **Poor Land—Poor People: A Socioeconomic Study of the Inhabitants of a Poor-Land Area (Township of Erin, Chemung County, New York).** S. Earl Grigsby, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y. Analysis of sociological and farm management schedule data for 234 families.

199. **Utopian Characteristics of Two Resettlement Communities on the Cumberland Plateau.** Wayland J. Hayes, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn. Analysis of newspapers, letters, official documents, minutes of meetings, case records, interviews—officials and settlers, to get a complete life history of the origin, development, decline, and present status of the two communities.

200. **Local Community Council: Their Scope in Area and in Objectives and Problems Considered: Their Methods, Particularly for Obtaining Consensus.** Arthur Hillman, 6115 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago, Ill. Analysis of records, largely in case study form, of what councils point to as their chief accomplishments together with the methods used in achieving specific purposes; membership composition of councils.

201. **Social Effects of Technological Unemployment—Newcastle, Pennsylvania.** George C. Homans, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass. Analysis of interview materials.

202. **Nationality Groups in Rural Michigan.** Paul Honigsheim, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Mich. Data used are: 250 questionnaires, extracts of printed and unprinted reports, documents, books, and articles dealing with nationality groups in Michigan and in other states.

203. **A Study of Shawneetown, Illinois, Which Is Moving to Escape Future Floods.** Robert W. Janes, 911 West High Street, Urbana, Ill. The basic data are from interviews with the inhabitants to reveal their attitudes toward the moving project.

204. **Ethnology of Indonesia.** Raymond Kennedy, Yale University, New Haven, Conn. Data gathered from literature and field work.

205. **Ukrainian Organizations in the United States; Adjustment and Assimilation of the immigrant and the Second Generation.** Stephen William Mamchur, College of St. Thomas, St. Paul, Minn. Analysis of official records and documents, including organs such as newspapers and magazines.

206. **Trends and Towns of Declining Population in Arkansas.** Willaim H. Metzler, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Ark. Analysis of questionnaire, interview, and census data to determine causes of, and adjustments to, declining population.

207. **Social Neighborhood Inventory.** Johann Mokre, 7611 Delmar Boulevard, St. Louis, Mo.

208. **Survey of Recreational Activities and Facilities in Lewiston-Auburn, Maine.** John Adrian Rademaker, Bates College, Lewiston, Maine. Census of each agency, institution, club, organization, or political subdivision carrying on recreational activity. Examination of number of persons who are provided with recreation, types of recreation, facilities provided, leadership, budget, relationship with other agencies, age, sex, and activities of subgroups, etc.

209. **The Nature and Effects of European-Native Culture Contacts in the Mandated Territory of New Guinea.** Stephen W. Reed, Linsly-Chittenden Hall, New Haven, Conn. An analysis of cultural adjustment in a caste-stratified society, and of the acculturation process, based on fieldwork data.

210. **Acculturation in Haiti.** George E. Simpson, Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa. Acculturation in education, political structure, social structure, agriculture, health practices, religion, music, and dances.

211. **Haiti's Social Structure.** *Idem.* Analysis of materials on income, occupations, education, political power, color prejudice, horizontal and vertical mobility, prestige, etc.

212. **A Study of Vertical Occupational Mobility in American Industry.** Christopher Smith, 129 Farmington Avenue, Waterbury, Conn. Data is taken from the active and inactive files of a large industrial plant showing the occupational records of every person employed in the plant, 1921-1937.

213. **The American Agricultural Village, 1930 to 1940.** T. Lynn Smith, Louisiana State University, University, La.

214. **When Peoples Meet: A Study of Race and Culture.** Bernhard J. Stern, Columbia University, New York, N. Y. Analysis of documentary materials.

215. **Lebanon: A Virginia Community.** Leland B. Tate, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg, Va.

216. **A Study of the Health of Families in a U.S.H.A. Housing Project.** Gladys R. Walker, 221 Homewood Avenue, Pittsburgh, Pa. Use of Public Health Nursing Association records and Housing Authority records, supplemented by school records and interviews with nurses and physicians, to discover whether or not health is affected in one year by improved housing conditions.

217. **Study of the Social Organization of a Slum Community To Determine the Nature of Informal Group Organization and of Leadership; also of the Positions of Politicians and Racketeers in the Social Structure and of Their Relations with Each Other.** William Foote Whyte, 6102 South Dorchester Avenue, Chicago, Ill. Analysis of detailed notes on the actions and verbal expression of a number of "corner boy" groups and upon the political and racket organizations.

THE FAMILY

(See also: 18, 20, 47, 48, 72, 159, 198, 278, 298, 312.)

218. **A Classification of Family Situations.** James H. S. Bossard, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa. All classifications available are examined in an effort to construct a more adequate classification.

219. **Factors in Happy Marriage among Lower Middle Class Families.** Edmund deS. Bruner, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y. In 1935 *True Story Magazine* conducted a contest on what makes for happy marriage based on questionnaire and essay. Approximately 5000 of the former and 1000 of the latter have been analyzed.

220. **Factors in Marital Adjustment.** Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr., Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y. The findings of Burgess and Cottrell are tested in an actual sample of population.

221. **Widowhood among Negroes.** Oliver C. Cox, Wiley College, Marshall, Texas. Statistical analysis of data in the record books of Cado Parish, La., to determine the causes of excessive widowhood among Negroes.

222. **A Suggested Research Method for Studying Definitions of Behavior Patterns Related to the Family.** John F. Cuber, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio. Analysis of responses to a questionnaire designed to test the hypothesis that definitions of the morality of specific conduct are not made in terms of the generalized valuations which are current, but are actually formed on the basis of other criteria, such as expediency, etc.

223. **Familial Adjustment of Conscriptees.** *Idem.* Analysis of data from interviews, participant observation, and personal documents.

224. **Functions of the Marriage Counselor.** *Idem.* Classification of case materials into a four-fold "system" from the point of view of what function the counselor performs for the client.

225. **The Social and Economic Adjustment of the Aged.** Robert M. Dinkel, 515 Anderson Street, Greencastle, Ind. Analysis of forty family histories from aged parent and one of the children, and about 1300 opinion scales from high school and college students on the question of the responsibility of children for the care of aged parents.

226. **Family Organization and Personality Attitudes.** M. C. Elmer, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa. Analysis of over 2000 interviews supplemented by other research material.

227. **Attitudes of Mexicans in Southern California to Prevalent Family Culture Patterns.** Harry C. Harmsworth, 1046 West 35th Street, Los Angeles, Calif.

228. **Mexican Marriage and Family Living.** Norman S. Hayner, University of Washington, Seattle, Wash. Analyses of materials published in English and Spanish on Mexican marriage and family attitudes and problems. Interviews with leading Mexican scholars. Observations in a specific community by an entire family.

229. **A Study of Primitive Customs, Traditions, and Beliefs of the Chippewa Indians of North America Regarding the Development and Training of the Child.** Sister M. Inez Hilger, St. Benedict's Convent, St. Joseph, Minn. Data gathered by personal field work, with the use of the ordinary ethnological techniques.

230. **The Customs, Traditions, and Beliefs of the Arapaho Indians of North America Regarding the Development and Training of the Child.** *Idem.* Part of a comparative analysis of child life of central and western Algonquian tribes, to discover how much of the woodland culture has been retained by the plainized Arapaho and Blackfoot. Materials gathered by field work.

231. **A Study of Campus Codes with Regard to Mate Selection and Courtship Behavior at Wisconsin.** Reuben L. Hill, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis. Analysis of questionnaire responses of 800 students attending classes in marriage preparation, and of similar response from high school groups and graduate students in sociology.

232. **Orientation of Values in College Courtship and Sex Life.** Paul B. Horton, Box 4836, Duke Station, Durham, N. C. Analysis of 400 questionnaires and a smaller number of interviews, asking which of a series of institutions, arguments, and motives the students think to have been influential in molding their codes of sex behavior.

233. **Begin with the Girl: The Sociology of Adolescent Girlhood.** Sister Mildred Knoebber, Mount St. Scholastica College, Atchison, Kan. An examination of the relationships of the girl, her home, school, etc., and the world of people surrounding her, as well as her own physical, mental, and emotional reactions to these varying environmental influences.

234. **Traits That Influence the Choice of a Marriage Partner.** T. C. McCormick, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis. Statistical analysis of a list of traits, checked and rated by four or five hundred undergraduate students.

235. **Courtship Mores on a Women's Campus.** Coyle E. Moore, Florida State College for Women, Tallahassee, Fla.

236. **A Study of Remarriage.** Harriet R. Mowrer, 727 Monticello Place, Evanston, Ill. Analysis of interviews with present and past marriage partners.

237. **Family Organization and Advancing Age.** *Idem.* Analysis of interviews and life history documents.

238. **Response to Parental Discipline.** M. F. Nimkoff, Bucknell University, Lewisburg, Pa. Analysis of case studies of parent-child relationships, patterns of parent-child relationships in various cultures, to test the hypothesis that love and hate for parents are functions of parental discipline and are not biologically determined by the sexual factor.

239. **The Family in Colonial Virginia; A Study of the Typical Incidents of Family Life in Virginia during the 17th and 18th Centuries.** A. A. Rogers, Box 1041, University Station, Charlottesville, Va. All extant source materials are being used or referred to, including the various types of manuscript source material available in libraries and other depositories. The most significant data have been found in diaries, journals, letters, and the like.

240. **The Haitian Peasant Family.** George E. Simpson, Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa. Use of interview data, professional periodicals and monographs, and direct observation to determine the degree of stability of family life in a peasant community where concubinage rather than legal marriage is the rule.

241. **Comparative Costs of Living of 150 Couples for the Last Year before Marriage and the First Year after Marriage.** B. F. Timmons, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill. Expenditures by items for men and women living apart before marriage are set against combined expenditures by items in the cost of living together.

242. **Differential Divorce Rates by Occupations.** H. Ashley Weeks, State College of Washington, Pullman, Wash. 6548 questionnaires by students in the secondary schools of Spokane; tests the hypothesis that differential occupational rates still persist when the factor of religion is controlled.

243. **Social and Personality Characteristics in Courtship and Engagement.** Robert F. Winch, 1126 East 59th Street, Chicago, Ill. Correlation analysis and possibly a preliminary factor analysis of schedule material from junior and senior college students in the Middle West.

244. **Familism and Nationalism.** Carle C. Zimmerman, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass. A study of the American family in relation to communities of origin in Europe and the American community.

POLITICAL SOCIOLOGY

(See also: 7, 10, 11, 15, 20, 52, 67, 68, 86, 88, 138, 175, 214, 292, 296, 302.)

245. **Studies in Sociological Jurisprudence.** Moses J. Aronson, P.O. Box 50, Hamilton Grange Station, New York, N. Y. A study of published sources to the end of interpreting and clarifying concepts.

246. **The Youth Hostel.** John Biesanz, Winona State Teachers College, Winona, Minn. A worldwide survey of the youth hostel movement.

247. **An Analysis of Personnel Classification Investigators in the United States Government Service.** Steuart Henderson Britt and Joseph N. Stonesifer, George Washington University, Washington, D. C. Rating forms and background data used to trace relationships between background and occupational success.

248. **Pending Developments in the Legal Status of Psychologists.** Steuart Henderson Britt, George Washington University, Washington, D. C. Analysis of statutes of various jurisdictions and state-by-state summary of legislation and of proposed legislation.

249. **Occupational Composition of the Legislature.** Horace B. Davis, 309 Lake Avenue, Newton Highlands, Mass. The hypothesis that legislators come almost exclusively from the middle class, and that the rise and fall of major economic interests in the community is reflected in corresponding changes in the occupational composition of the legislature is examined by analysis of occupational data for members of the Massachusetts General Court, from 1780 to 1938.

250. **Problems of Postwar Reconstruction.** Lewis Dexter, 536 Pleasant Street, Belmont, Mass. Treatment of historical data by a procedure similar to that of H. D. Lasswell's *Politics* or E. P. Herring's *Public Administration and the Public Interest*.

251. **Linguistic Sociology.** Frieda Fligelman, 2509 Parker Street, Berkeley, Calif. A linguistic analysis of political ideology.

252. **Social Logic; An Analysis of the Contents of Beliefs Regarding Public Policy.** *Idem.* An analysis of controversial literature pertaining to public policies.

253. **Age as a Differential with Respect to Constancy of Response of a Panel Group to a Political Questionnaire.** Morton F. Fosberg, 559 West 188th Street, New York, N. Y. Analysis of data collected by the Office of Radio Research under Paul F. Lazarsfeld, during the study of Erie County, Ohio.

254. **World Organization.** Scott Nearing, Ridgewood, N. J. A technique for establishing a world community.

255. **Political Geography—the Development of the Theory.** Joseph S. Roucek, Hofstra College, Hempstead, N. Y. An attempt to survey the whole field and its influence on social and political trends.

256. **The Sociology of Terror and Violence.** *Idem.* An analysis of the various techniques used today, and of the material from autobiographies, biographies, novels, and pertinent studies.

257. **The Sociology of War.** Jay Rumney, University of Newark, Newark, N. J. An examination of the connection between internal and external violence in specific socioeconomic configurations.

258. **Political Movements in the State of Minnesota.** Calvin F. Schmid, University of Washington, Seattle, Wash. A study of the rise and decline of the Farmer-Labor Party, emphasizing social and economic backgrounds and using documentary sources, published and unpublished statistical data.

259. **Haitian Politics.** George E. Simpson, Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa. An examination of the political structure, the power of the President, recent economic legislation, criminal justice, relationships between government and social structure.

260. **Local Government and Community Cohesion.** Luke M. Smith, 12 Walker Street, Cambridge, Mass. A study of the extent to which, and the manner in which, local government is a factor in the cohesion of the local community; the effect of community cohesion upon the local government; and the interaction between these two.

261. **Totalitarian Broadcasts in This War.** Hans Speier, New School for Social Research, 66 West 12th Street, New York, N. Y. Analyses of monitoring reports of the B.B.C.

262. **Labor Problems Arising from Mobilization in the United States with Reference to Existing Labor Standards and the Selective Service Act.** David Kenneth Spiegel, 390 Riverside Drive, New York, N. Y. Analysis is based on documentary sources and actual first hand observation of large nearby defense plants.

263. **The Socialist Movement in Reading, Pennsylvania, 1896-1940—A Study in Social Stratification and Social Change.** Henry G. Stetler, 1925 North Park Avenue, Philadelphia, Pa. An evaluation of the relative importance of various material and nonmaterial factors in the emergence of class cleavage and other social changes in a native American (Pennsylvania-German) industrial environment.

SOCIOLOGY OF RELIGION

(See also: 11, 18, 20, 68, 117, 158, 202.)

264. **Ritual in Chicago's South Side Churches for Negroes.** Vattel E. Daniel, Wiley College, Marshall, Texas. Interview and observation materials to test the hypothesis that the type of ritual which a group uses is a function of the type of life which it lives in the part of the society in which it finds itself.

265. **Relation of Character Traits to Success and Failure in the Episcopal Church Ministry.** H. Ralph Higgins, St. Mark's Church, Grand Rapids, Mich. An analysis of background questionnaire material and self-ratings to the end of developing a testing technique for applicants for the Episcopal ministry.

266. **Attitudes of Laymen Toward the Lord's Supper.** Ralph C. Kauffman, Bethel College, North Newton, Kan. An analysis of over 1000 questionnaires obtained from members of six major Protestant denominations.

267. **Study of the Attitudes of Rural Ministers in Pennsylvania.** R. W. Kerns, Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa. Opinionnaire forms J and K, published by the Character Research Institute, Washington University, used.

268. **Haitian Vodun: A Peasant Religion.** George E. Simpson, Pennsylvania State College,

State College, Pa. To determine the relationship of *vodun* to the social structure, its importance in peasant life, and the relative importance in it of African and Catholic elements.

269. **The Church and the Sociology of Salvation.** William C. Smith, Linfield College McMinnville, Oregon. To show that the churches are ineffective because they deal with men as if they were individuals in vacuums instead of as persons in social settings.

270. **Status of the Rural Church in a Frontier Prairie County.** Fred R. Yoder, State College of Washington, Pullman, Wash. Case statistical data from 36 churches are examined to test the hypothesis that the rural church is an adaptive institution.

CRIMINOLOGY

(See also: 18, 89, 195, 304.)

271. **A Proposed Functional Classification of Criminal Behavior.** Walter Webster Argow, New York University, New York, N. Y. Comparative analysis of current classifications to develop a classification based on motivations of criminality.

272. **Crime and the Process of Urbanization: A Study of Culture Conflict.** Marshall B. Clinard, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa. Use of questionnaire, life, history, and personality inventory data for a homogeneous group in the Iowa Men's Reformatory, and questionnaire data for control group to examine the relationship of urbanization to criminal behavior.

273. **Postdischarge Behavior of Prisoners Granted Executive Clemency in Wisconsin.** J. L. Gillin, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis. Data from records in prison, Department of Public Welfare, Governor's office, and F. B. I. are used to determine relationship between factors in pre-clemency experience and failure after clemency.

274. **A Scale for Predicting Adjustment during Probation or Parole.** Stuart Lottier, Psychopathic Clinic, The Recorder's Court, Detroit, Mich. Analysis of interview data of 500 male offenders.

275. **Homicides in Allegheny County, Pennsylvania, 1900-1940; Social Factors Involved in 2500 Homicides and Treatment of 500 Killers.** W. A. Lunden, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa. Analysis of records and data in the county coroner's files and the district attorney's records.

276. **The Relationship of Delinquency and of Heterogeneity of Intelligence.** Ernest Mannheim, University of Kansas City, Kansas City, Mo. Delinquency rates are correlated with various measures of dispersion of I.Q. scores by census tracts.

277. **Criminals' (Prisoners') Views on Crime and Its Treatment.** Albert Morris, Boston University, Boston, Mass. Analysis of written comments, letters, prison papers and journals, books written by criminals, and interview data.

278. **A Study of Conditions Associated with Rural Juvenile Delinquency in Nebraska.** James M. Reinhardt, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Neb. An analysis of materials from case records and interviews with juvenile court workers, child welfare workers, institutional officials, and delinquents.

279. **The Psychology of "Irresistible Impulse" in Criminal Law.** Jess Spirer, Western State Penitentiary, Pittsburgh, Pa. Attempts to define "irresistible impulse" and to indicate its limitations as a defense.

280. **A Selected Bibliography for Fire Insurance Company Investigators and Others Engaged in the Detection of Arson and Kindred Crimes.** Richard C. Steinmetz, 400 West Madison Street, Chicago, Ill.

281. **Crimes of the Public Utilities.** Edwin H. Sutherland, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind. An analysis of white-collared criminal behavior as revealed in the autobiographies and biographies of leaders of business, and reports of Federal Trade Commission on Utility Corporations.

282. **Differentials in Criminality.** C. C. Van Vechten, Division of Vital Statistics, New Census Building, Washington, D. C. Analysis of federal and state data on crimes, arrests, prosecutions, and penal treatment, including machine tabulation cards on unpublished federal data, in an attempt to integrate data on the same offenders through different steps of the police-judicial-penal procedure.

283. **Predicting Juvenile Delinquency.** H. Ashley Weeks, State College of Washington, Pullman, Wash. Data from 2000 cases of delinquents for Spokane County Juvenile Court and

6548 questionnaires from secondary school students in Spokane are used in setting up prognostic tables to show probability of a juvenile becoming delinquent.

284. **A Study of Male Youthful Offenders.** Sanford Winston, State College, University of North Carolina, Raleigh, N. C. Analysis of all male admissions 18-25 years of age to the State Prison, July 1939-June 1941.

285. **Social Organization and Crime: The Etiology of Crime in Small Communities of Wisconsin.** Arthur Lewis Wood, University of Buffalo, N. Y. Statistical analysis of the relation of community indices of crime to economic conditions and participation in religious, civic, recreational and mutual aid groups.

286. **Testing Methods Used in the Reconditioning of Social Attitudes of Young Adult Offenders (on Probation or Parole).** Pauline V. Young, University of South California, Los Angeles, Calif. Use of interview and questionnaire data, family conferences, documentary materials to summarize attitudes of treatment, their effects, the effects of changes of treatment, and effects of self-treatment and discipline.

SOCIOLOGY AND SOCIAL WORK

(See also: 11, 72, 98, 217, 271.)

287. **From Poor Law to Public Assistance in Michigan: A Study of the Evolution of an Institution.** Ernest B. Harper, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Mich. An analysis of techniques and processes involved in drastic institutional accommodation to social change, and a formulation of practical conclusions presumably of value in future welfare planning.

288. **Value of Undergraduate Volunteer Work.** Sister Mary Henry, Rosary College, River Forest, Ill. Analysis of grades before and after volunteer experience, students' opinions, supervisors' opinions, and opinions of other faculty members.

289. **"Shack Dwellers" in two Pennsylvania Townships.** M. E. John, Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa. Analysis of interview data and records of the justice of the peace, department of public assistance, county superintendent of schools, and the tax collector.

290. **The Community Settlement as a Means of Community Control.** Andrew J. Kress, Georgetown University, Washington, D. C. A project in the coordination of community study and neighborhood settlement work.

291. **Characteristics of Youth Employed on the NYA Out-of-School Work Program.** Joseph J. Lister, 1726 Connecticut Ave., N.W., Washington, D. C. Analysis of 35,000 schedules (15 percent sample of youth employed on the NYA out-of-school program), covering the 48 states, New York City, District of Columbia and Puerto Rico.

292. **Programs for the Prevention of Blindness in the U. S.: Relation of Public to Private Programs.** John W. McConnell, New York University, University Heights, New York, N. Y. Analysis of state laws concerned with welfare, education, health, safety and workmen's compensation, which are being used in programs for the prevention of blindness, and of cooperation between public and private agencies.

293. **From WPA to Private Jobs: The Transition from Work Relief to Private Industry.** Selden C. Menefee, WPA Division of Research, 1734 New York Ave., N.W., Washington, D. C. Data based on 9600 interviews with workers separated from WPA in September and October, 1940. Survey made in 22 survey areas (32 counties) selected so as to represent both defense areas and areas without defense contracts.

294. **A Study of the Distribution and Adequacy of Medical Facilities in Nebraska.** James M. Reinhardt, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Neb. Analysis of interview material and pertinent documentary sources.

295. **How Social Case Histories May Be Written so as To Make Them Available for the Sociological (or Psychosocial) Study of our Culture.** Ada Eliot Sheffield, 31 Madison Street, Cambridge, Mass. A rewriting of a modest number of long-continued records of active cases from a private family welfare agency to demonstrate that a selective rearrangement of record materials may yield rich cultural insights.

296. **Research into the Problems of Peace and Postwar Organization.** Milton Woll, 420 East 86th Street, New York City. All data relating to Jews on migration and colonization, relief and rehabilitation, and the position of the Jew in the shifting European complex, are analyzed.

297. **Biographical Dictionary of Social and Public Welfare.** Erle Fiske Young, 3551 University Avenue, Los Angeles, Calif. Data include birth and death dates, vocation, nationality, field of interest in social work, bibliography or biography.

EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY AND THE TEACHING OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

(See also: 11, 64, 86, 118, 152, 192, 214, 286.)

298. **The Significance of Selected Home Factors in the Educational Achievement of Rural and Village Children in Upper South Carolina.** Gordon W. Blackwell, Furman University, Greenville, S. C. Analysis of questionnaires for 3076 children in grades four through eleven, covering such items as age, present grade, scholastic rating by teacher, occupation of head of family, house tenure, others in family working, farm tenure, number of years in present house, number of houses lived in during life, distance from home to school, distance from home to bus stop.

299. **The American Sociologist: Characteristics of Sociologists, Both Society Members and Others.** Leonard Bloom, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio. Analysis of questionnaires from the complete membership of the Society, regional societies not included in the National Society, other subscribers to sociological journals, instructors, and researchers.

300. **The Concept "Cooperation" in Introductory Textbooks in Sociology.** Lee Brooks (co-author with Mary Alice Ericson), Chapel Hill, N. C. Textbooks since 1920 are examined.

301. **The Problem of Social Aim in Higher Education Today.** Charles J. Bushnell, University of Toledo, Toledo, Ohio. Study of the curriculum of municipal universities in the Middle West, in addition to questionnaire responses, leaflets, pamphlets, public school reports, government documents.

302. **A Condensation, Review, and Analysis of Recent Decisions of the Higher State and Federal Courts Regarding All Phases of Educational Administration: With a Supplementary Study of Legislative Regulation of the Social Studies in Secondary Schools in all 48 States.** M. M. Chambers, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C. Seventeen collaborators, trained in education and in law, study the decisions relating to their respective phases of school law.

303. **A Plan for Teaching Large Introductory Classes in Sociology: Its Nature, Operation, and Worth.** Lloyd Allen Cook, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. Comparison of learning outcomes and reactions of equated groups to different programs.

304. **Depression Drops from High School, 1930-40, and Their Delinquency Record.** Albert E. Croft, University of Wichita, Wichita, Kan. Analysis of 4000 cases of students dropping in Wichita.

305. **Are There "Principles" of Sociology?** John F. Cuber, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio. (1) Examination of the introductory textbooks to determine areas of agreement and disagreement on basic principles of sociology, both expressed and implied. (2) A statement of the apparent consensus of principles.

306. **American Mission Colleges Abroad.** J. Elliott Fisher, 130 Morningside Drive, New York City. An analysis of institutional case histories and other relevant data on American Mission colleges.

307. **Visual Presentation of the People of a Small American City in Action.** Hugh N. Fuller, Emory University, Emory University, Ga. The project consists of the filming of 18 reels of motion pictures (general title: "The People of Atlanta"), which seeks to show the answers to the following questions: Where do they come from? How do they make a living? How do they rear their young? How do they use their leisure? What are their religious observances? How do they engage in community activities?

308. **Race Prejudice.** Sister Mary Henry, Rosary College, River Forest, Ill. Responses to similar interview schedules used in 1936 and 1941 in an undergraduate women's college are compared in an attempt to evaluate definite efforts at securing toleration and good feeling.

309. **The Philosophy and Organization of the American Friends Service Committee (Quaker) Work Camps.** Frank S. Loescher, Randolph-Macon Women's College, Lynchburg, Va. Use of documentary materials and data gathered by participant observation.

310. **Vocational Training and Employment of Youth.** Selden C. Menefee, WPA Division of Research, 1734 New York Ave., N.W., Washington, D. C. Data based on 3042 interviews with youth of the 8th grade graduating classes of 1929, 1931, and 1933 who had one semester

or more of training in St. Louis, Birmingham, Denver, or Seattle. Results compared with those for untrained youth in the same cities as to characteristics of youth, amounts and types of employment, earnings, duration of jobs, etc.

311. **Youth and National Morale.** Delbert C. Miller, State College of Washington, Pullman, Wash. Recent research investigations of youth reviewed and conclusions drawn.

312. **Relation of the Economic Situation of the Family to Education of Children beyond the Secondary School.** Raymond B. Stevens, Elmira College, Elmira, N. Y. Data secured by interview from one year's high school graduating class on following items: yearly family expenditures, education or work record of graduate, financial aid secured if in college, occupation of father, school record of graduate.

313. **The Practical Role of Sociology in the Secondary School.** George W. Strong, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa. Use of questionnaire and interview data from sociologists and school administrators and of documentary sources to develop a theoretical framework for an integrated senior high school social science course, using sociological principles, concepts, and content materials.

314. **The Relation between Divorce and School Retardation and Juvenile Delinquency.** H. Ashley Weeks, State College of Washington, Pullman, Wash. Data for this study are drawn from 6548 questionnaires filled in by students attending the secondary schools in Spokane, and the court case records of 515 delinquents who appeared before the Spokane County Juvenile Court.

TOO LATE TO CLASSIFY

315. **Survey of Inter-marriage, Including a Statistical Analysis of Inter-marriages for Los Angeles County for Years 1924-1933, and the Success or Failure of Inter-marriage, with a Field Sampling of the Products of the Above Inter-marriages.** Constantine Panunzio, University of California, Los Angeles, Calif.

316. **American Negro Names.** Newbell Niles Puckett, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.

317. **Patterns of Acquaintance and Association among Individual Neighbors.** Frank L. Sweetser, Jr., Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.

A PROGRAM OF RESEARCH IN HOUSING

JAMES W. ROUTH

United States Housing Authority

The research needs of the United States Housing Authority are many and diverse. Factual data relating to every aspect of the low-rent housing program need to be accumulated, analyzed and interpreted. Fundamentally, the outstanding need is for an impartial evaluation or appraisal of the accomplishments and shortcomings of the Federal slum clearance program as it has been and is being carried out.

Of almost equal important is the need for a basic and interpretive analysis of the over-all supply and demand for housing categorically for all income groups in the United States, with special reference to the market for low-rent housing. Together with this, there should be made an analysis of the social and economic status of the families who live in substandard housing and of the communities in which these families reside.

A comprehensive program of research in housing has been developed by and for the Research and Statistics Division of the Authority. An outline of this program sets forth clearly the essential requirements and suggests the scope and variety of the studies that need to be conducted. Some of the items in the following outline are indicative of research projects which are already in progress or which may be undertaken directly by the staff of the Division. Included also are projects which have been or may be undertaken in cooperation with other Federal agencies, with Local

Housing Authorities, with the professional staffs and graduate students of universities, and with local public and private research organizations.

The Housing Market. 1. Comprehensive analysis of the market for low-rent housing and the over-all housing problem in selected communities of different types and sizes.

2. Analysis of the number and characteristics of substandard dwellings and the rent, income, and family composition of the occupants, with reference to regional, city size, and racial differences.

3. Analysis of market data pertaining to the occupants of substandard housing, as evidenced by experience in filling projects, including evaluation of the difference between "need" and "effective market" and test of the validity of customary methods of deriving market estimates.

4. Study of the extent and characteristics of owner-occupied substandard dwellings and their occupants, with special attention to the circumstances which make for the exclusion of such families from the rental market.

5. Study of fluctuations in family incomes within the low-income group, with special reference to the stability of the group as a whole and to the effects of the defense program.

6. Analysis of changes in family composition in relation to the size of dwelling units needed in successive phases of the life-cycle of the family and its economic status.

7. Analysis of the effects of equivalent elimination on the market for low-rent housing.

8. Study of foreign housing experience in relation to market analysis, economic planning, rent systems, etc., and application of this experience to the domestic problem.

9. Comparative analysis of the relationships that exist between family size and composition, income, and size of dwelling units of individual projects and groups of projects.

USHA-Local Housing Authority Operations. 1. Analysis of data relating to selected USHA-aided projects, to determine the distribution of man-hours and men by labor trade classifications, the normal pattern of placement of construction materials, and other control, estimating and planning factors.

2. Comparative analysis of the development costs of completed projects to determine normal costs for land acquisition, site improvement, construction of dwelling and non-dwelling spaces, equipment, architectural fees, etc.

3. Analysis of the costs of operation and maintenance of completed projects to determine and establish normal operating cost data for control and estimating purposes.

4. Analysis of the relationship between the magnitude, cost and length of time required to construct housing projects.

5. Analysis of the relationship between type of site, cost of site acquisition, cost of site improvement, and total development cost of housing projects.

6. Analysis of the relationship between Federal and local subsidies, economic rent, income, family size, and rent grades.

7. Comparative analysis of development and annual costs and livability of typical housing projects built by public agencies and private enterprise.

8. Study of the effect upon development costs of typical projects of variations in labor wages and costs of construction materials.

Economic and Local Government Aspects of Housing. 1. Analysis of the influence of public housing projects on private building activity.

2. Study of the proportion of private residential building which may be allocated to the several income groups in the over-all housing market.
3. Study of the effect of the slum-clearance program on the rate of demolition of unsafe and insanitary dwellings in selected communities.
4. Study of the comparative rate of mortgage foreclosures for residential properties at various price levels.
5. Objective analysis on a case-study basis in selected localities of the economic cost of slums and blighted areas and of the effects of housing projects on governmental service costs.
6. Study of the relationship between building code enforcement and housing need, with special reference to the need for low-rent housing.
7. Analysis of the influence of slums on adjacent areas in relation to property valuation, tax delinquency, fire insurance rates, and related factors.
8. Study of the relationships of Local Housing Authorities with state and Federal housing agencies.
9. Study of the economics and rehabilitation by repair of substandard areas as compared with slum clearance by demolition.

Sociological Aspects of Housing. 1. Study of the observable effects of improved housing in selected communities upon health conditions as revealed by the rates of morbidity and mortality and the incidence of infectious diseases, and evaluation of the cost to the community of disease, hospitalization, and medical attention.

2. Analysis of delinquency rates for various communities and types of housing, and evaluation of the cost of delinquency and crime in the substandard areas of selected communities.

3. Study of the effect of low-cost housing upon the case load of public and private social agencies in selected communities.

4. Analysis of school problem cases, truancy, retardation, and achievement in relation to housing and community background.

5. Analysis of family budgets with reference to income and expenditures, debts and savings, in selected localities and projects.

6. Comparative analysis of environmental, hygienic and general living standards of tenant families before and after rehousing to determine objectively the benefits that accrue to those removed from substandard housing by the USHA program.

This outline is not intended to define or describe specific projects that are at present in progress or contemplated. Within the broad area of our research needs there necessarily must be a closer definition of the limitations and objectives of any specific project undertaken by our own staff, by university graduate students, or by the staffs of other research agencies. For example, we now have in progress or in formulation a number of carefully restricted projects that lie within the general field as broadly outlined. These projects include:

Analysis of market data pertaining to the occupants of substandard housing in selected communities in an effort to establish certain standards according to regional city size, and racial differences;

Analysis of data compiled by WPA in conjunction with BLS for 18 selected USHA-aided projects, to determine the relative distribution of employment by labor trade classifications, the pattern of placement of construction materials, and other factors;

Study of the proportion of private residential building that may be allocated to each of the three major income groups of population in the United States;

Study of the mortgage history of houses costing \$5000 or less.

Analysis of the influence of selected public housing projects on private building activity.

There is also in preparation a manual of techniques for use by universities in conducting graduate research studies, and by the staffs of any public or private research agencies that may undertake specific research projects in connection with our cooperative program. This manual will include a bibliography of completed university theses and research studies in the field of housing.

It should be pointed out in conclusion that research is a painstaking and time-consuming process. Results cannot be expected too soon. It is unfortunate that a comprehensive program of research in housing could not have been initiated several years ago. The products of what we are beginning to do now will not be available for months, or even for years. But a beginning has been made and it is to be hoped that steady and uninterrupted progress will be the rule henceforth. This is highly desirable since the primary objective of the research program is the collection, analysis and interpretation of factual information useful as a basis for evaluating accomplishments, determining the necessity for and the direction of policy changes and modifications, and planning a continuing attack upon the nation's housing problem.

PROJECTS IN PROGRESS UNDER FEDERAL AGENCIES AND RESEARCH FOUNDATIONS

I. U. S. DEPT. OF AGRI., BUR. OF AGRI. ECO.

1. A Study of the Settlement Patterns in Various Rural Areas. (Columbia River Basin Joint Investigations.)
2. The Sociological Aspects of the Subminimum Sized Farm Unit, Teton County, Montana.
3. Rural Housing Facilities of Selected Farm Security Administration Clients in the Northern Great Plains.
4. Rural Youth Surveys.
5. Study of the Planning Process in the United States.
6. Trends in Group Organization and Their Relationship to Community Planning, Wisconsin.
7. An Analysis of Selected Sociological Factors in Relation to Agricultural Planning in Eddy County, New Mexico.
8. Community Organization in Charles County, Maryland.
9. Analysis of Community Organization and Leadership as Pertaining to Land Use Planning in Adair County, Iowa.
10. Study of Farmers' Attitudes toward Practices Recommended by Land Use Planning Committees—Edgefield County, South Carolina.
11. Social Assimilation in a Summer Home Community—Little Compton, Rhode Island.
12. Sociological Study of the Effects of a Unified Farm Program in a Southern County—Greene County, Georgia.
13. Study of Land Tenure and Its Relation to Land Use and Community Activities in Box Butte County, Nebraska.
14. A Study of Farm Labor and Tenancy in Selected Areas of Missouri.
15. North Dakota Harvest Labor Study, 1938.
16. Reconnaissance Farm Labor Surveys.
17. Survey of Community and Social Conditions Related to Land Use Planning, South Dakota.
18. Migration Out of the Great Plains.
19. Migration to Pacific Coast States since 1930.
20. Recent Migrations to the Mississippi Delta.
21. Migration of Young People in Utah.
22. Ethnic (Cultural) Factors in Land Use in Rural Areas of Connecticut.
23. The Influence of "Dust Bowl" Migratory Workers on a Community (Wasco, Kern County) in California.
24. Analysis of Unmet Needs in a Rural Iowa County as a Basis for Unified County Planning.

25. Progress in Rural Rehabilitation in the United States. This is a study of a 20 percent sample of all standard loan borrowers of the Farm Security Administration who secured their first standard loan between March 1, 1936 and February 28, 1939, and who did not receive an emergency loan prior to March 1, 1936.

26. Delineation of Communities and Neighborhoods as a Service to County Planning.

II. DEPT. OF COM., BUR. OF CENSUS, DIV. OF VITAL STATISTICS

27. Studies on Cardiac Diseases.

28. Regional Differences in Birth and Death Rates.

29. Results on Problems of Residence Allocation of Births and Deaths.

30. Analysis of Birth and Death Rates.

31. Monograph on Completeness of Birth Registration.

32. Comparability of Mortality Statistics.

33. Differentials in Judicial and Penal Treatment of Offenders.

34. Marriage and Divorce Statistics.

35. A Statistical Critique of Medical Care in Institutions.

36. Distribution and Characters of Patients in Mental Institutions at the 1940 Census.

III. U. S. DEPT. OF JUSTICE, BUR. OF PRISONS

37. Geographic Differentials in Medical Diagnoses, Mental Ability, and Educational Achievement by Nativity and Place of Commitment for Inmates in Federal Penal and Correctional Institutions.

IV. U. S. DEPT. OF LABOR, BUR. OF LABOR STATISTICS

38. Negro Cooperative Associations.

39. Sample Studies in the Effect of Increased Hours on Production, Accidents, Illness, and Absenteeism with Special Reference to Defense Industries.

40. Industrial Wage Differentials for Workers Having Comparable Skills.

41. Forecast of Labor Supply as Related to Population by Age, Sex, Color (Each Decade to 1980).

42. Classification of Manufactures by Employment Changes (1929-1937).

43. Employment Opportunities Arising from Need for Replacement in the Labor Force.

44. Effects of the Draft on College Registrations.

45. Occupational Outlook in Commercial Air Transportation Industry.

V. U. S. DEPT. OF LABOR, WOMEN'S BUREAU

46. Investigations of Woman Employment in Defense Industries and of Various Health Safeguards Necessary for Their Work.

47. Trends in the Employment and Occupations of Women.

48. State Labor Laws for Women (Continual Following of Legislation).

49. Field Investigation of the Confectionery Industry.

50. Employment of Women in the Federal Government.

51. Earnings of Women in Various Types of Offices.

52. A Brief Survey of Migratory Labor in Delaware.

53. A Study of the Wages of Women in Michigan Industries.

VI. FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY, NYA

54. Youth on the Student Work Program.

55. Characteristics of Youth Employed on the Out-of-School Work Program.

VII. FEDERAL WORKS AGENCY, USHA

56. A Comprehensive Analysis of the Problem of Slum Clearance in Relation to the Rehousing of Low-Income Families in Selected Communities.

57. An Analysis of the Characteristics of Substandard Housing and Low-Income Families for the Purpose of Determining Regional, City Size, and Racial Differences.

Philip
Mathi
Joseph
Marian
Laile E
Robt.
Ludwig
Samuel
Hans V
H. W.
Milton
Paul K
Elmer V

58. An Analysis of Data Compiled in Connection with the Construction of a Selected Number of USHA-Aided Projects to Determine the Relative Distribution of Employment by Labor Trade Classifications, Pattern of Placement of Construction Materials, and Other Factors.

59. A Study To Determine the Proportion of Private Residential Building That May Be Allocated to Each of the Three Major Income Groups of Population in the United States.

60. Analyses of the Influence of Selected Public Housing Projects on Private Building Activity in Their Vicinity, on the Enforcement of Local Building Codes, and on the Rate of Demolition of Unsafe and Insanitary Buildings.

61. A Study of Mortgage Foreclosures in Relation to Home Ownership Categorically by Family Income Groups.

62. An Analysis of the Effects on Local Government Service Costs of Low-Rent Housing Projects Built in Connection with the Slum-Clearance Program.

VIII. FEDERAL WORKS AGENCY, WPA, DIV. OF RESEARCH

63. Monthly Report of Unemployment.

64. Survey of Dwelling Units.

65. Survey of Rental Changes.

66. Survey of Defense Migration.

67. A Project for Estimating Construction Volume and Construction, by States.

68. Survey of Reemployment and Need.

69. Survey of Community Facilities.

70. Survey of Certified Load in Selected Defense Centers.

71. Seven Stranded Coal Towns (Based on a Study of Depressed Areas in Southern Illinois).

72. The Decline of a Cotton Textile Center: A Study of New Bedford, Massachusetts.

73. Mexican Migratory Workers of South Texas.

74. Development of the Problem Areas in Oklahoma.

75. Vocational Training and Employment of Youth.

76. Getting Started: Urban Youth in the Labor Market.

77. Separations from WPA Employment.

78. Survey of Relief, Work, and Security Programs.

IX. TWENTIETH CENTURY FUND

79. An Over-All Study of Housing.

80. A Study of Collective Bargaining in Several of the Most Important American Industries.

81. A Study of the Relations between the Government and the Electric Power Industry.

82. An Analysis of the Economic Effects of Short Selling on the New York Stock Exchange.

NEW AND REJOINING MEMBERS FOR 1941

Philip James Alaimo, 822 Foster Street, Evanston, Illinois

Mathilde Bahar, 1316 New Hampshire Ave. N. W., Washington, D. C.

Jospeh C. Bailey, 416 W. 118 Street, New York, N. Y.

Marian L. Brockway, 601 West Park Street, Olathe, Kansas

Laile Eubank, Marietta College, Marietta, Ohio

Robt. G. Foster, Merrill Palmer School, 87 E. Ferry Ave., Detroit, Mich.

Ludwig Freund, 634 S. Grove Street, Ripon, Wisconsin

Samuel Garvin, 2050 University Ave., Dubuque, Iowa

Hans V. Gerth, 329 Sterling Hall, Univ. of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.

H. W. Gilmore, Tulane University, New Orleans, La.

Milton M. Goldberg, International House, 500 Riverside Drive, New York, N. Y.

Paul K. Hatt, University of Washintgon, Seattle, Wash.

Elmer W. Henderson, 5520 Ingleside Ave., Chicago, Ill.

- Charles E. Hendry, Boy Scouts of America, 2 Park Ave., New York, N. Y.
 Waiter P. Hollman, Men's Residence, Canton, New York
 John James, University of Washington, Seattle, Wash.
 John P. Johansen, N. Dak. Agri. College, Fargo, N. D.
 William L. Kolb, Oklahoma A. & M. College, Stillwater, Okla.
 J. H. Korson, 18 Howe Street, New Haven, Conn.
 LeRoy W. Mallett, Northern Ill. State Teachers Col., De Kalb, Ill.
 Mrs. L. Marcy, Loyola University Library, New Orleans, La.
 E. G. McCurtain, 116 Morgan St., Tahlequah, Okla.
 Edgar C. McVoy, Univ. of New Hampshire, Durham, N. H.
 Orvin Nelson, William Jewell College, Liberty, Mo.
 S. C. Newman, Univ. of Louisville, Louisville, Ky.
 John Norton, St. John's Orphanage, 96 Schermerhorn St., Brooklyn, N. Y.
 Robt. W. O'Brien, 121 Educ. Hall, Univ. of Washington, Seattle, Wash.
 Mason Olcott, 11 Seminary Place, Brunswick, New Jersey
 Herbert M. Peet, 2481 N. E. 21 Ave., Portland, Oregon
 Harley O. Preston, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.
 Walter C. Reckless, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio
 Svend H. Riemer, University of Washington, Seattle, Wash.
 Alfred C. Schnur, 834 Silliman Ave., Erie, Pa.
 Richard M. Seeman, 2358 Fifth Ave., Pittsburgh, Pa.
 C. Willard Smith, William Jewell College, Liberty, Mo.
 Rockwell C. Smith, Garrett Biblical Institute, Evanston, Ill.
 Samuel M. Strong, Howard Univ., Washington, D. C.
 Roland L. Warren, Hofstra College, Hempstead, New York
 S. Kirson Weinberg, 5245 Ingleside Ave., Chicago, Ill.
 Norbert E. Willing, 579 Seminary St., Dubuque, Iowa
 Robin M. Williams, 105 Agri. Bldg., Univ. of Kentucky, Lexington, Ky.
 Kurt H. Wolff, 2119 N. Fitzhugh Street, Dallas, Texas

SPECIAL COMMITTEES

On Textbooks. Because of the recent criticisms of textbooks, particularly in other disciplines, the President of the Society has appointed the following committee to prepare a statement of the views of sociologists: Ellsworth Faris, chairman, Robert S. Lynd, Frank H. Hankins. The American Historical Society has appointed a similar committee.

Special Meetings. The Executive Committee has approved the following special meetings to be held during the annual meetings in New York, Dec. 27-29, at the Roosevelt Hotel, New York, and the President has named the following to arrange the programs: "Social Aspects of Housing," R. Clyde White, University of Chicago, Chairman; "General Social Science Course," J. L. Woodward, Cornell University, Chairman, Lloyd Cook, Paul Foreman, Earle D. Johnson, Paul Mundie, Constantine Panunzio, Ruby Jo Reeves, Leland De Vinney, Leslie Day Zeleny; "Sociology and Immediate Problems of Defense," F. S. Chapin, L. S. Cottrell, Jr., Helen H. Jennings, Paul Lazarsfeld, George A. Lundberg, J. L. Moreno, G. P. Murdock, Bruno Solby, S. A. Stouffer. The chairman has not yet been appointed, but all correspondence may be addressed to F. S. Chapin, University of Minnesota, who will forward it to the proper persons.

CURRENT ITEMS

Communication. This note by Mr. Tumin does not seem to fall exactly into the category either of article or review but does seem to be of sufficient interest to warrant publication. Therefore, it is printed as a "Current Item" even though it appears to have more permanent value than "Current Item" suggests. These remarks apply equally well to Mr. Fortune's communication. If I were not a departing editor, I think I would create a department called "Critical Notes and Suggestions" in which such materials could be printed, discussions of Society policy and organization, research projects, etc.—R.B.

A NOTE ON CULTURAL STYLE

In an article published jointly by Kroeber and Richardson entitled "Three Centuries of Women's Dress Fashions, A Quantitative Analysis",¹ Kroeber has once more returned to the question of the relationship between culture and personality. Their position as set forth in this article would undoubtedly be more acceptable to those who disagree with cultural determinism than the point of view developed by Kroeber in 1917 in his article "The Superorganic."² In that article, he stated:

... the content of the invention or discovery springs in no way from the makeup of the great man or that of his ancestors, but is a product purely of the civilization into which he with millions of others is born as a meaningless and regularly recurring event.³ [In 1940, however, we read that]:

... culture determines the actions of personalities, at any rate determines them far more than their uncontrolled volitions determine culture . . .⁴

One experiences some difficulty in setting down the general thesis of this article: for, though some of the conclusions are not extrapolated beyond the specific province of dress styles, yet the analysis is stated to be an "attempt to define stylistic changes in an objective and quantitative manner,"⁵ with the implication that dress styles provide a critical testing ground for stylistic changes in general. That this implication is in the minds of the authors is further borne out by Kroeber's appendix, where he refers to the main body of the text as a "clear-cut finding which rests on evidence" that substantiates the thesis of the influence of culture in determining personalities.⁶

Thus it seems that we must assume that Kroeber and Richardson do use dress styles as a relatively "pure case" of cultural style in general. Their justification for the concentration upon dress style resides, in the main, in the assumption that fortuitous individual influences would be most likely to appear on such a relatively utility-free level of cultural activity as formal dress wear.⁷ Implicit as a corollary to this is their apparent reasoning that if the influences exerted by individual wills can be shown to be relatively nonoperative in the sphere of activity where one would expect these influences to be most operative, it would then be reasonable to conclude

¹ *Anthropological Records*, Vol. V, no. 2, 111-153.

² *American Anthropologist*, N.S., Vol. XIX, no. 2, 163.

³ *Ibid.*, 196.

⁴ *Anthropological Records*, loc. cit., 152.

⁵ *Ibid.*, 111.

⁶ *Ibid.*, 152.

⁷ *Ibid.*, 111.

that one could extrapolate the findings to levels where individual wills are even less likely to make their weight felt.

Several queries immediately come to mind: (1) the position that formal dress wear offers instances of style behavior most subject to influences of individual wills is an assumption as yet to be proven: from this, it follows that (2) even though Kroeber and Richardson should succeed in analyzing out the slight extent to which influences of individuals enter as constituent elements, they are only demonstrating that individuals influence changes in formal dress styles very slightly, i.e., it is difficult to see their empirically determined or reasonably presumptive theoretical justification for applying such conclusions as they do draw from their data to a wider area, when, as has been pointed out, the assumption which is their major justification for such a procedure is, as yet, untested; (3) it may further be asked why Kroeber and Richardson did not analyze the relative amount of influence which individuals do exert in the area of formal dress wear. In these terms, the question becomes, "Can proof of periodicity or regularity of change in an element of culture vitiate the claim that individual drives may effect change in culture as a whole?" Before such influence can be said to be relatively inoperative, must not the role of individuals who are believed to have exerted an influence in a given instance be examined in relation to those particular fields of activity in which they may have been influential? One looks in vain even for an expression of the possibility of such an analysis.

In 1917, Sapir, in his discussion of Kroeber's earlier presentation, detected what seemed to him to be a basic flaw in Kroeber's point of view. He said:

Kroeber chooses his examples from the realm of inventions and scientific theories. Here it is relatively easy to justify a sweeping social determinism in view of a certain general inevitability in the course of the acquirement of knowledge. . . . Had he occupied himself more with the religious, philosophic, aesthetic and crudely volitional activities and tendencies of man, I believe that Dr. Kroeber's case for the non-cultural significance of the individual would have been a far more difficult one to make.⁸

Yet Kroeber in this present paper in no way answers or even takes cognizance of this criticism. Two things seem to flow from this lack of recognition of "idea systems" as significant parts of culture. In the first place, the word 'style' is used in a generic sense, with an implicit grouping of 'idea styles' and 'dress styles' under a single heading; and this, it is suggested, quite ignores the not unreasonable principle that the relationship between culture and an individual on the ideational level should be analyzed separately from the material culture styles he follows.

In the second place, two other components of style which are at least analytically if not functionally disparate are treated as a unit: changes in style and the acceptance of style changes. The analysis of changes in style may, perhaps, (although this too is doubtful), be fruitfully carried out without reference to psychological motivations, but it is difficult to see how the acceptance of style changes can be meaningfully analyzed without reference to this aspect of the matter.

That Kroeber at times seems to accept the principle that psychological motivations may be more important for his problem than would seem to follow from cursory reading of his presentation is borne out by such a statement as:

We do not deny that such psychological motivations [as imitation, competition, emulation, etc.] may be operative. We do believe that as explanations they are conjectural and scientifically useless because, to date, at least, they depend on factors which are unmeasurable and undefinable.⁹

⁸ *American Anthropologist*, N.S., Vol. XIX, no. 2, 442-443.

⁹ *Anthropological Records*, loc. cit., 150.

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¹⁰ *Ibid*

But if motivations such as these are excluded as working devices or concepts and one asks what other devices or concepts have been substituted for them in drawing the conclusion that the explanation given of style changes and acceptance of these changes is more satisfactory than such psychological explanations, one looks in vain for an answer. Kroeber maintains in the appendix he devoted to the theoretical implications of his data that he has given satisfactory explanations for the changes he and Richardson describe, yet the entire paper is on the descriptive rather than the explanatory level. At least one of his general conclusions seems to embody a recognition of this:

We think we have shown that through behavioristic and inductive procedures operating wholly within the socio-cultural level functional correlations can be established for such supposedly refractory changes cultural manifestations as style and fashion changes.¹⁰

Kroeber seems to consider that the correlations of periods of "high variability" of sociocultural events with "certain minima and maxima of proportion" in dress styles represent a functional relationship. Yet it must be asked again whether, as Kroeber claims, it follows that "socio-cultural unsettlement . . . disrupt[s] established dress style and tend[s] to its overthrow or invasion."¹¹

Certainly in the light of this one cannot but wonder at the tenability of the major inference that "It also seems possible that the correlations with general conditions explains the near regularity in the periodicities of dress."¹²

MELVIN M. TUMIN

Northwestern University

Communication. The following note from Mr. Fortune opens up interesting possibilities both for theoretical and empirical research. Perhaps sociologists have departed too far from "biological determinism" and have failed to take sufficient account of certain biological conditioning factors which affect both social structuring and functioning.—R.B.

SOCIAL FORMS AND THEIR BIOLOGICAL BASIS

Social codes appear to be codes for conditioning reflexes which reflect both some freedom in the terms of the conditioning and also some limitations imposed by the nature of the unconditioned reflexes. In social cultures, there appear to be influences derived from a two-way interaction between the brain and the lower nervous system, and especially from a two-way interaction between the brain and the balance between the physico-chemical compounds, sympathin and acetylcholine. The sociological and the neurological avenues of inquiry are sufficiently distinct so that within the sociological avenue it may be presumed that codes of social conditioning have absolute autonomy from neural factors and absolute dominance over these factors irrespective of their inhering or innate nature. However this assumption of a one-way interaction may be challenged.

In and about New Guinea, patrilineal societies are associated with one unilateral code of sex conditioning while matrilineal societies are associated with another. Where inheritance, succession, and descent inhere in the male line, orgasm of the clitoris is tabooed and sex fore-play and after-play directed to that end is also tabooed. Where inheritance, succession, and descent inhere in the uterine line, orgasm of the clitoris is commonly enjoined and sex fore-play and after-play directed to that end is very commonly mandated. It is well known that patterns of minor elements in

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, 150.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, 149.

¹² *Ibid.*, 150.

social culture, such as the manner of sexual intercourse, may be responsive to the character of major culture patterns and pervaded by the character of major culture patterns. It seems possible that major culture patterns may, in their turn, be especially sensitive to patterns of minor elements precisely at the point where sociological discourse impinges most closely upon physiological discourse. Such an assumption of two-way interaction between social and neurological factors inhering in the nature of social codes is strongly suggested by many details of the New Guinea codes. It agrees with the suggestions in Pavlov's work. It agrees also with the evidence in Terman's, Dickinson's, and Hamilton's work that about half of an American female population are sympathin-dominant, and the other half acetylcholine-dominant ("orgasm adequate" and "orgasm inadequate") in the sex act. It enables us to draw inferences and make predictions, and, as a scientific induction, it must be tested by its predictive power. We predict, for a start, that unilateral patrilineal primitive societies and unilateral matrilineal primitive societies in the East Indies, in Indo-China, in India, in Africa, and in the Americas will be discovered to be built, apparently, upon the same opposed unilateral codes of sex conditioning which we have discovered in adherence to unilateral patriliney and to unilateral matriliney, respectively, in four cultures of each unilateral type in and about New Guinea.

We point out that the above induction passes the academic walls between sociology, physiology, physical chemistry, and physics in the relations of phenomena within the human body and in the corresponding relations of phenomena outside of the human body.

R. F. FORTUNE

Toledo, Ohio

ANNOUNCEMENTS AND MEETINGS

American Association of Junior Colleges. The needs of the 256,000 students in junior colleges throughout the country with respect to marriage, family relations, and home life will be studied by a national committee appointed by James C. Miller, of Columbia, Missouri, president of the Association. The committee will be known as the "Committee on Junior College Education for Family Life." It will be headed by H. H. Tracy, of Fullerton Junior College, Fullerton, California.

American Civil Liberties Union, 170 Fifth Avenue, New York, has issued a 48-page report of a survey of practices affecting student activities and expression in American colleges. It is called "What Freedom for American Students?" It contains reports from 111 institutions selected so as to be a fair sample of the 1500 institutions of higher education. In addition to the analysis of the questionnaire, a "Student Bill of Rights" is included.

This is very interesting reading and may be had free, I imagine, by any university man who asks for it. However, since the A.C.L.U. has no means of support except the voluntary contributions of those who believe in the work it is doing, I should think any one requesting this pamphlet (which every college man ought to read, be he student, teacher, or administrator) should enclose a contribution ranging from one dollar to as much as he can afford.

I am sure the A.C.L.U. will be glad to send a copy to any university man whether he is a contributor or not, but you had better ask soon because the supply probably will soon be exhausted.—R.B.

American Council of Learned Societies. Excerpts from the following letter are self-explanatory and may help sociologists to remedy the conditions which have been criticized in "Current Items" several times.—R.B.

My dear Professor Bain:

I have just been reading the last issue of the *American Sociological Review*, and as usual, with much interest. . . .

I am particularly interested in some of your comments on the slight place that sociolo-

gists seem to have in the inter-American exchanges of students and professors, and I want to bespeak your good offices in trying to bring about a change in this situation. . . .

The first and the principal observation that I have to make with regard to sociology is that the sociologists themselves have so far displayed very little interest in the opportunities for research that are open to them in the Latin American countries. I have gone through the contents of the *Sociological Review* for the last two years, and have noted the extreme rarity of articles and book reviews on any aspect of Latin American studies. I also note that in the Census of Research there are only one or two projects dealing with Latin America. The *Annual List of Dissertations Accepted* shows during the last three years only two dissertations in the field of Latin American sociology, which is a pretty good indication that that field is almost wholly neglected in the graduate schools.

We have tried for some time to secure a sociological editor for the *Handbook of Latin American Studies*, and so far have had to be content with what Professor Redfield could do for sociology in the section devoted to anthropology.

The applications for exchange scholarships and for exchange professorships that I have examined as a member of the Buenos Aires Convention Committee have included almost no applications from students or professors of sociology.

I suppose there are two reasons for this situation. One is that sociologists in the United States have not yet realized the opportunities that are waiting for them in Latin America. The other reason is that few of them have any command of Spanish or Portuguese.

This year, as you kindly announced in the April *Sociological Review*, this Council is offering an opportunity for the intensive study of Spanish and Portuguese. Frankly we had hoped to attract a majority of applications from the social sciences, but as a matter of fact we have had very few from those fields. . . .

If I knew who could prepare a suitable article on such a subject, I should venture to suggest that the *Sociological Review* should carry an article before long on sociological research in South America. Possibly when Professor Crawford comes back he will have the makings of such an article. Meanwhile, any encouragement that you can give to sociologists, whether students or professors, to apply for exchange appointments or to take part in the work that this Council's Committee on Latin American Studies is trying to carry on, will be appreciated. Since the committee that administers the Buenos Aires Convention includes Donald Young among its members, you may be sure that we are on the lookout for sociologists and that those who apply and show evidence of being able to use Spanish or Portuguese are sure to receive very sympathetic attention.

Very sincerely yours,

WALDO G. LELAND, Director

The American Youth Commission has issued *Work Camps for College Students*, by Kenneth Holland. He finds that one of the best values of work camps is to offer students "laboratory experience of great value. Field trips are established practice for students in many subjects such as geology, entomology, zoology and biology. Why should not students of the social sciences receive a comparable experience by living and working in a strife-torn industrial town, in a seriously eroded rural area, or in a village ridden with racial prejudices?"

The book may be obtained from the Commission, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

Committee for Conceptual Integration. The Committee on Definitions, Earle Eubank chairman, R. V. Bowers, and C. C. North, has sent the following suggestions to those interested in this part of the program of the C.C.I. Others interested in this project should communicate with any member of the Committee on Definitions. Anyone interested in the work of the C.C.I. is eligible to join, whether he is a member of the American Sociological Society or not. All that is necessary is to send 50¢ for dues to Albert Blumenthal, Maryville, Missouri.—R.B.

Dear Colleague:

We suggest the following procedure, supplemented by any further means which you think would be helpful:

1. Since you will necessarily be working upon these [definitions of concepts] individually, may we ask that you work upon them in the order in which we have numbered them, since this will best fit in with the work others are doing?

2. Make whatever studies you wish in the effort to arrive at what seems to you adequate definitions. It might be appropriate to start with an examination of definitions or discussions that already appear in our literature; but these, of course, represent merely a point of departure, since what we are endeavoring to do is to arrive at an improvement upon what has been done in the past.

3. When possible, we should like you to take the initiative in calling together other persons in your own institution, or others that are accessible, for a discussion of the clarification of the terms themselves.

4. Upon the basis of whatever study you make (alone, if necessary; with other persons, if possible), will you eventually prepare at least one definition of each term which seems to you to cover the salient points, as a tentative definition? If you find that the term has two or more distinctive meanings which should be recognized, kindly prepare these as two or more separate definitions, as does the unabridged dictionary; in which case, please number them as first, second, and third, etc., meanings. (Note that several meanings have been advanced for a good many terms, e.g., "culture.") If after due consideration, you find definitions to be already satisfactorily stated in existing literature, feel free to recommend them for continuance. We are not trying to set up new definitions except where existing ones are inadequate; newness *per se* is no particular virtue in this case.

5. As soon as you have finished with one concept, kindly send your results in to the Chairman of the Committee without waiting to start on your next, so we may know how much is actually completed from week to week.

6. In sending the material to the Committee, kindly put each definition on a standard three by five card to facilitate our filing. On this card, give (a) the wording of the definition and its source. (If it has appeared in print before, you will, of course, use quotation marks and give its exact source; if it has not appeared before, please indicate that fact.) Please attach a separate list, in brief, of (b) persons and sources consulted in arriving at the definition. Please accompany each definition with (c) a short, concise explanatory statement of any kind that you may consider necessary to elaborate any explanation not self-evident in the definition itself, as to why this meaning or wording, rather than some other, was taken. In each case, (d) sign your name for our information.

It is the purpose of the Committee, after the definitions have been received, to go over them with care and to note agreements and disagreements. These will be noted in the Committee's subsequent report.

Wherever there is sufficient agreement to warrant doing so, these will subsequently be placed before a larger group for further comment and judgment.

The Inter American Statistical Institute, through its Chairman, Stuart A. Rice, announces the election of officers of the Institute to compose its "Bureau" or governing body, as follows: President, M. A. Teixeira de Freitas, Brazil; first vice president, Stuart A. Rice, United States; second vice president, Carlos E. Dieulefait, Argentina; third vice president, Ramón Beteta, Mexico; treasurer, Robert H. Coats, Canada.

The aims of the Institute according to its Statutes: (a) to stimulate improved methodology in the collection, tabulation, analysis, and publication of both official and unofficial statistics; (b) to encourage measures designed to improve the comparability of economic and social statistics among the nations of this hemisphere; (c) to provide a medium for professional collaboration among statisticians of the American nations; (d) to cooperate with national and international organizations in advancing the science and administration of statistics.

John Anisfield Awards. Mrs. Edith Wolf of Cleveland, Ohio, has established two \$1,000 prizes, for books published in 1941 on subjects in the field of race relations. One of these prizes has been awarded annually since 1934 for outstanding scholarly contributions to the understanding of the field. The new \$1,000 award will be given to the best book concerned with racial problems in the field of creative literature. Works of fiction, drama, poetry, or biography or autobiography will be eligible.

The book which receives the new award must perform, in the opinion of the judges, an outstanding service in clarifying the problems of racial relations. It is not sufficient that a novel or play have, as part of its set-up, characters of different races, or even that its plot depend upon racial conflict or conciliation. The book which receives the award must be one whose dis-

tion is that it contributes emphatically to our sympathy, knowledge, and understanding of race relations. The present Anisfield Award, which has been given to studies based upon scientific research in this field, will be continued.

All communications in connection with both awards should be addressed to Donald Young, 230 Park Avenue, New York, New York. Three copies of each book proposed for either award should be sent to him as soon as possible after publication and in no case after January 15, 1942.

The Institute for Labor Studies was established in the fall of 1940 to be "a clearing house to facilitate research collaboration in the labor field. It is a nonprofit scientific association." It issues a *Monthly Letter* which is free to its members of which there are three classes: Senior Scholars (a doctor's degree or five years of teaching or research in the social sciences); Junior Scholars (candidate for a doctor's degree or less than five years' experience in teaching or research; Contributing Members (those who are not actively interested in research but who wish to help the work of the Institute).

Minimum dues for Senior Scholars are \$2.00 a year; Junior Scholars, \$1.00; Contributing Members, at least \$3.00 annually. Of course, it is hoped that all classes of members will contribute more than the minimum dues.

All those who are interested in the Institute should address Katharine D. Lumpkin, Research Director, 54 Prospect Street, Northampton, Massachusetts.

The Mid-West Sociological Society, at its April meeting, elected the following officers for 1941-1942: president, Carroll D. Clark, Kansas; first vice president, C. E. Lively, Missouri; second vice president, Lowry Nelson, Minnesota; secretary-treasurer, J. Howell Atwood, Illinois; newly elected members of executive committee, Laurence H. Brown, Nebraska, John Saathaff, North Dakota, John Useem, South Dakota, Margaret Reuss, Wisconsin; representative on executive committee of the A.S.S., J. O. Hertzler, Nebraska.

National Archives. Roscoe R. Hill, formerly Chief of the Division of Classification, has been appointed Chief of the Division of State Department Archives.

Recent accessions of possible interest to sociologists are records of the United States Housing Corporation, 1918-35, of the Shipbuilding Labor Adjustment Board, 1917-19, and of the War Savings Committee in Kansas City, 1918-21.

National Association for Nursery Education will hold its next biennial conference at Detroit, Michigan, October 24-27, 1941, with headquarters at the Book-Cadillac Hotel. The general theme of this conference is "Life, Liberty and Happiness for Children Now."

Anyone interested in attending or having special invitations sent to those who might be interested should write to Grace Langdon, president, 1734 New York Avenue, Washington, D. C.

Pacific Sociological Society, Northern Division, met at Gearhart, Oregon, May 9 and 10, 1941. Fifteen papers were presented and since two afternoons were "open for recreation," some golf may have been played. I am sure there was much walking on the beautiful Oregon beach and some hardy (and I mean *hardy*) souls may have tried the surf (temperature about 40°F.)—R.B.

The Population Association of America elected the following officers for 1941-42: president, P. K. Whelpton, Scripps Foundation; first vice president, Frederick Osborn, American Museum of Natural History; and second vice president, Dorothy S. Thomas, University of California; secretary, Conrad Taeuber, U.S.D.A., treasurer, Halbert L. Dunn, Bureau of Census.

Institute for Propaganda Analysis. Alfred McClung Lee, of New York University, has been elected Executive Director of the Institute for Propaganda Analysis, 211 Fourth Avenue, New York City, a nonprofit educational organization "to help the citizen detect and analyze propaganda," according to an announcement by Kirtley F. Mather, of Harvard University, president of the Institute. Mr. Lee will retain his connection with New York University.

Institute for Psychoanalysis, 43 East Ohio Street, Chicago, has issued a speech by

Edwin R. Embree entitled *Living Together*. This would be an excellent bit of material to place in the hands of first course students if it could be obtained in quantity or if permission to mimeograph it could be obtained. Perhaps one could get permission by requesting it.—R.B.

Institute of Public Affairs held its fifteenth conference at the University of Virginia from June 23 to June 25, 1941, on the general topic "The United States, the War, and the Future." Two Forum Topics, National and Foreign, were discussed under the leadership of Ernest K. Lindley and Rexford Guy Tugwell for the first and Herman Beukema and Brooks Emeny for the second. A complete program of the addresses may be obtained from the secretary, Anne Cowle Yates, Charlottesville, Virginia.

Public Affairs Committee has published Pamphlets 56, *What the New Census Means*, by Stuart Chase, and 57, *Man Meets Job—How Uncle Sam Helps*, Phillip S. Broughton. The first one deals with the results of the last census which were already fairly well known to sociologists before the census was taken but the material is presented in simple and clear form for the general reader. Many people will be surprised to learn that New York probably will have 55,000 fewer children in the first grade in 1942-43 than it had in 1927-28. There is also other information that may startle the lay reader. The second volume gives the results to date of the U.S. Employment Service and tells both workers and employers how to achieve the fullest uses of the U.S.E.S. In the entire period of World War I only 40,000 were specially trained for defense jobs; in the first six months of the present emergency, over 400,000 have been trained or retrained.

These pamphlets (and the other 55) can be obtained from the Committee, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, for 10¢ each, and less if ordered in quantity.

NEWS FROM COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

University of Alabama. The National Conference on Family Relations held a three-day regional conference on June 26-28, as part of the summer session offerings. Edward W. Gregory, Jr., was chairman of the organization committee. Officers of several of the state welfare agencies and representatives from several southern universities were on the program.

Albion College, Albion, Michigan. Melvin John Williams, who received his doctor's degree at Duke University in June, 1941, has been appointed to an instructorship.

Antioch College and the *Antioch Review* sponsored a conference on "Progressive Action and Post-War Reconstruction" which was held at Yellow Springs, June 27-29, inclusive. About twenty nationally known persons participated.

Boston College School of Social Work celebrated its fifth anniversary on May 19, 1941. Many friends of the school and prominent speakers participated. The School, 126 Newbury Street, has an enrollment of 64 and has given 75 master's degrees during its five years of service. Many of its graduates are now in responsible positions throughout the country.

University of Chicago. On the occasion of the Fiftieth Anniversary celebration, over 160 distinguished scientists 32 of whom will receive honorary degrees, will hold over fifty symposia in most fields of learning. About 40 universities, some in foreign countries and fifteen scientific and governmental agencies will be represented. The A.A.A.S. will include the symposia in the physical and biological sciences in its program which will be given during the same week, September 22-27. The honorary degrees will be awarded during a special convocation, September 29.

In the preliminary program issued by the University press agent, I note that Park and Burgess are the only sociologists included in the symposia, though Ogburn is allowed to preside at one session. In contrast to this, there are a half dozen or more men from each of the other social sciences including philosophers, many of them from other institutions than Chicago. Psychology is also slighted. The symposia are very heavily weighted with physical and biological science, with a fair sprinkling of philosophers of various persuasions.—R.B.

Harvard University. The fourth volume of P. A. Sorokin's *Social and Cultural Dynamics* has appeared (American Book Company) and his Lowell Lectures on *The Twilight of*

Sensate Culture have been published by the Harvard Press. His monograph on *Socio-Cultural Causality, Time, Space* will also soon appear.

Indiana University. A. B. Hollingshead has been granted a post-doctoral fellowship by the Social Science Research Council. He will spend next year visiting American universities.

Harvey J. Locke has received a grant-in-aid from the Social Science Research Council which was matched by a similar grant from the Graduate Research Committee of Indiana University. The grants will assist him in continuing his study of "Factors Involved in Marital Adjustment." He is comparing information on personality, background, and other data secured from a divorced sample with similar information from a married sample. Mr. Locke was visiting professor at the University of Michigan during the Summer Session.

Edwin H. Sutherland is to supervise a study of race relations by Cleo W. Blackburn, who has been granted a fellowship by the Rosenwald Foundation for this purpose.

A Conference on Family Relations was held on April 11 and 12. The speakers at the conference were E. B. Reuter, University of Iowa, E. W. Burgess, University of Chicago, F. M. Vreeland, DePauw University, and A. C. Kinsey, Indiana University.

University of Iowa. The fifteenth Conference on Child Development and Parent Education was held on the campus June 17-19, 1941. This conference is sponsored each year by the Iowa State Council for Child Study and Parent Education with the cooperation of the Child Welfare Research Station and the extension divisions of the University, State College, and State Teachers College. Five nationally known out-of-state speakers participated along with five experts connected with Iowa institutions. The central theme was "Children and Youth in a National Emergency."

Miami University. Erich Franzen taught at the University of Illinois during the summer session.

W. Fred Cottrell is working with the committee which is studying the problem of reorganizing the divorce court and welfare agencies in Butler County, Ohio. He also has been made adviser to the Judge of the Juvenile Court and is chairman of the advisory committee to found a Boys' Farm on the pattern of Flannagan's Boys' Town. Cottrell is also Chairman of the County Board of Public Assistance for the blind and for dependent children.

Michigan State College. The thirteenth annual Institute of Social Welfare was held on the campus July 14-18, inclusive. Each year, from 300-500 social workers attend these noncredit courses. This summer, courses in group work and medical social work were given for the first time.

The special course on marriage offered in the summer session was given this year by Dr. J. Howard Howson who is one of the contributors to the Vassar textbook, *Plan for Marriage*.

Joel B. Montague, Jr., has been appointed graduate assistant for 1941-42. Mr. Montague has been a graduate student at Michigan State College during 1940-41.

New York University. Walter Webster Argow has been appointed assistant editor of the magazine, *Children's Institutions*. He will be glad to receive manuscripts in this field for possible publication. Articles dealing with any phase of child welfare are welcomed.

A summer course in correctional administration field work was offered experimentally in the summer session.

University of North Carolina. The University of North Carolina Press has announced the publication of Harriet L. Herring's *Southern Industry and Regional Development*.

Margaret Jarman Hagood's statistics text for sociology is now in press and will be released by Reynal and Hitchcock in the early fall of 1941.

Katharine Jocher taught at the University of Virginia during the summer session of 1941, giving special work in the history and development of public welfare.

Clark University, where he received his first Ph.D. degree under Stanley Hall, has conferred the degree of Doctor of Humane Letters on Howard W. Odum.

University of Southern California. Prentice-Hall has just published *Social Case Work in National Defense: The Cultural Approach to the Problems of Service Men and their Families*

by Pauline V. Young. It has a Foreword by Fred K. Hoehler. Mrs. Young spent the summer in Washington, D. C. doing research.

Tulane University. Logan Wilson, at present on the University of Maryland staff, will head the department as associate professor beginning with the fall term.

Bernard Barber, who served last year as an instructor, has been awarded a Buckley Scholarship and will return to Harvard to continue his graduate work.

University of Virginia. C. T. Krassovsky taught in the summer session.

University of Washington. The *Bulletin-newsletter* of the University for May 1941 contains a description of the sociology department's new Exhibition Room and two charts by Calvin F. Schmid giving the age and sex composition of the student body and school survival. It is said there is only one other Sociology Exhibition Room in the United States, and therefore presumably in the world, like that at the University of Washington.

Yale University. The *Bulletin of the A.S.S.* (Associates in the Science of Society) has committed *hari-kari* with Volume X, Number 4, May, 1941. Of course, we were forewarned but it still is a matter of regret to witness the demise of this most interestingly written and attractively printed little quarterly. The department plans to issue an occasional newsletter when the circumstances call for it, but no regular schedule will be followed.

This swan-song issue gives a brief "Summary of a Decade," noting the death of *laissez faire* (I wonder what Sumner's ghost did?), and the transition in sociology from more or less philosophical theory to empirical theory based upon empirical research. (Where Sumnerian thunder and lightning used to roll and flash, Davie now does meticulous ecology with drawing boards, spot maps, and planimeters and Dollard spends a thousand hours on a life history.) "Sociological Books-of-the-Decade" are also listed (You guess what they are).

The Sociology Club was addressed in March by DeGrange on "Sumner" and in April by Coulter on "Credit and Relief," and by Bossard on "War and the Family." In May, Gabriel spoke on "The Ideology of a Proposed American Fascism" and Keller told "How *The Science of Society* Was Made."—R.B.

LATE NOTICES

Institute of Oral and Visual Education has made available to all schools and other patriotic organizations 26 fifteen minute recordings on the Constitution. These recordings may be had by any interested group (they are free to schools) by writing to the Institute, Radio Division, 101 Park Ave., New York.

The Society for Social Research will hold its summer Institute at Ida Noyes Hall, University of Chicago, August 15-16. The general topic is "Morale" and many eminent persons, including such sociologists as Park, Burgess, C. A. Anderson, Sletto, Speier, Ruth Pearson, are scheduled to speak.

The National Recreation Congress will meet in Baltimore, Maryland, Sept. 29 to Oct. 3. The general topic is "The America We Defend." Over 1000 delegates will attend. For further information, T. E. Rivers, 315 Fourth Avenue, New York.

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BOOK REVIEWS

BOOK REVIEW EDITORS

HOWARD BECKER AND THOMAS C. McCORMICK

University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin

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Fundamental Concepts of Sociology. By FERDINAND TÖNNIES, translated and supplemented by Charles P. Loomis. New York: American Book Company, 1940. Pp. xxvii+293. \$3.00.

In 1887, more than a half-century ago, Ferdinand Tönnies published the first edition of *Gemeinschaft und Gesellschaft*,¹ his own variation on a theme which is as old as social theory: the ubiquitous contrast between social structures circumscribed by tradition, habit, face-to-face fellowship, and those structures defined by rules, reason, and impersonal relations. Since the publication of this work, the German writers are few who have not been influenced by it, and American sociological thought is strongly colored by dichotomies directly or indirectly dependent upon Tönnies' analysis. The works of Cooley and MacIver come immediately to mind, not to mention the recent analyses by rural sociologists, some of whose comparisons are clearly heirs to this tradition.

Loomis has translated the whole of the eighth edition of Tönnies' study, as well as a thirty-page article published in 1931 in which Tönnies summarizes his larger work. Some biographical data are included in the translator's introduction, and an appendix includes a table of Tönnies' concepts, taken from Stoltenberg's *Wegweiser durch Tönnies: Gemeinschaft und Gesellschaft* (not *Führer* or *Wegenweiser*, as given on pages xxvii and 280.) There is a selected bibliography of Tönnies' works and the criticisms and expositions thereof.

The quality of the translation is fair—nowhere significantly misleading, but burdened with that cautious literalness which translates sentences instead of ideas. Loomis' major error consists in his decision to leave untranslated the key concepts *Gemeinschaft* and *Gesellschaft*. Although they are by no means equivalent terms, "community" and "society" have long been regarded by American writers as effective counterparts of *G* and *G*. As early as 1914, MacIver translated the terms as community and association, while

¹ A brief essay-outline entitled "Gemeinschaft und Gesellschaft," dated 1880-81, appears in Tönnies' *Soziologische Studien und Kritiken*, Jena, Gustav Fischer, Vol. I, pp. 1-33.

Wirth used community and society in his November, 1926, article on Tönnies in the *American Journal of Sociology*, and Bentley used the latter pair in his *Relativity in Man and Society*. Moreover, the adjective forms "communal" and "societal" are capable of unambiguous use, which would avoid the clumsy forms *Gemeinschaft*-like and *Gesellschaft*-like. Actually, no serious damage results from this reluctance to translate, since the meaning of the terms ultimately emerges from the text. But the lucidity of the translation and its assimilability would have been perceptibly increased had the terms been translated. (The awkwardness of the failure to translate is clearly shown on pages 37-39, where the English equivalent, "community" or "society" is given in parentheses each time *G* or *G* is used.)

Loomis' choice in the matter seems doubly curious since the much more murky terms *Wesenwille* and *Kürwille* (the "psychological" concomitants of community and society) are unhesitatingly translated as natural will and rational will. These are unfortunate choices. "Natural will" (in the community) to some extent embodies the sense of *Wesen*, but it carries the implication that society, by contrast, is "unnatural," which Tönnies disavows. *Wesen* is natural in the sense of essential, habitual, inborn, even instinctive; as a matter of fact, Tönnies never cleared himself completely of methodological instinctivist tendencies. It would not be unfair, therefore, to use "habitual will" or perhaps "involuntary will" for *Wesenwille*. *Kürwille*, the psychological dimension of society, was introduced only in the third edition of the original *Gemeinschaft und Gesellschaft*. In the first two editions, the term was *Willkür*, which clearly indicates arbitrariness, deliberate choice, and, perhaps, reflection. Here "arbitrary will," or "voluntary will" might be used. The apparent paradox and redundancy of involuntary and voluntary will are due to Tönnies' peculiar theory of volition; they are not actually illogical in this context. My own choice would be habitual will and arbitrary will, but in any case, adjectives less ambiguous and less evaluative than natural and rational should have been used.

Loomis' scattered references to "ideal types" do credit neither to Tönnies nor to typology. Type-theory has come a long way since Tönnies' formulations, and it is misleading to infer too casually an identity between his and, for example, Weber's type-concepts. That there is some relationship is beyond doubt, for Weber introduced two types of social process (*Vergesellschaftung* and *Vergemeinschaftung*) which avowedly followed Tönnies' discussions. But Weber's typological theory is much more elaborate than the unpatterned formulations of the "old master," and there may be points of significant disagreement between them. Weber, for example, would probably reject the criterion of "normality" which Loomis pins to Tönnies' types. A certain circumscription of analytic content is no doubt inevitable where the main goal is translation rather than analysis, but no methodological comment at all would perhaps be better than suggestions which are too few and too thin.

An important question emerges from the preceding paragraph, namely: Is scientific sociology best served by our *translating* the conceptual systems of German sociologists, or by our analyzing, criticizing, and *using* these

concepts in serious monographic research? The latter procedure seems to the reviewer to be the only one with a future. What we need to know about Tönnies is not that he published a book on community and society, but rather that there are, or are not, research possibilities in community and society as tools of analysis. What does Tönnies mean by volition? And are his references to free will and his organismic analogies deliberate? Is he a victim of hedonistic circular reasoning when he speaks of men "unwillingly" doing something in order to obtain a desired end? Does Schmalenbach's concept of the *Bund* really function as a type intermediary to community and society? The argument that the problems and research dimensions of Tönnies' thought can only be discussed after his works have been translated does not stand close examination. The ability adequately to analyze the theoretical implications of a German sociologist's conceptual system is not guaranteed by the mastery of a single translated exposition of the system. This ability is a function of not mere acquaintance, but easy intimacy with and catholic insight into the intellectual matrix or cultural context out of which a given system emerges. The translation, exposition, but above all the analysis of the concept-in-context is the intellectual contribution which American sociology awaits today. A certain genial irreverence towards the Great Men in German sociology is necessary if we are to make the best use of their thought. After all, Weber, Tönnies, *et al.*, were human beings, not supermen; they were capable of errors and space-filling as well as of ideas. The cream of Tönnies' thought on community and society could have been presented in an exposition of fifty pages. It is regrettable, in this sense, that individuals who develop their facility with German to the extent that they are capable of translating difficult works must waste their time translating instead of analyzing.

Finally, while we are on this subject, there is Bentley's cogent admonition: "It is entirely hopeless to expect a satisfactory technical sociological statement to develop in any one existing language." It has yet to be proved that the learning of one or two foreign languages early in life is inferior to the translation of great works as a method of making full use of the international division of labor in science.

But enough of quibbling. Obviously, this is a book that sociologists should own. It is an adequate translation—with the deficiencies noted above—and it fills a definite need. That, handled differently, it might have been a really outstanding contribution is just for the record.

ROBERT SCHMID

Vanderbilt University

The Integration of American Society. By ROBERT COOLEY ANGELL. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1941. Pp. ix+228. \$2.50.

It is surprising, when one stops to reflect on it, how little of the sociological output delves deeply into the nature of social groups or raises fundamental questions concerning the functions they perform in the maintenance of a social order. This book does. In ordinary times it would catch the eye

of the discerning sociologist who believes that advancement in his field depends on investigations that come to grips with really vital problems of society. At a time of crisis like the present, it should compel the attention of a wider public.

The focus of the inquiry is on the effects that groups, as now set up and functioning, are having upon the cohesion of our society. The sense of moral oneness and common orientation that formerly stemmed from the close-knit local community have dwindled; a proliferation of "free-standing" groups devoted to segmental interests has created divergent orientations amid which common ultimate values retain only a precarious hold on our people. True, these diversified group structures intertwine to form a complicated network of symbiotic relations, but the latter cannot of itself restore the bonds of moral unity.

It is in institutions that basic values find embodiment and the moral community a mode of expression. The analytic quest, then, while centered on the nature and functions of specific types of groups, seeks to discover in them whatever evidence there may be of institutional structures that inspire universal loyalty and implement common ultimate values. Groups are classified in seven categories, and each of these is subjected to systematic examination. The results are not very reassuring—in general, "the picture is one of a differentiated society whose parts have become so disconnected that few organs speak in terms of the whole, and the words of those which do are subject to the special limitations that class isolation imposes" (p. 215). To be sure, integrative forces are not wholly lacking and their significance is appraised with scientific candor, but their chances of closing the growing rifts in the societal structure would appear to be rather slim.

The weakness of the study lies largely in the fact that no adequate criteria exist for the determination of "ultimate common values," or for assessing their functions in creating a moral order or unifying a society. There is no sidestepping the charge that many of the estimates are arbitrary interpretations of the author. Moreover, there are many nooks and crannies in our social system wherein may lie, half-concealed, a variety of widely shared values whose cohesive qualities are perhaps greater than some of those Angell stresses. One thinks of our "lively arts," Stephen Foster's songs, baseball and its heroes, the news of human interest, and Ma Joad's faith in the "folks."

Yet it is against the magnitude and profound importance of its task that the achievements of such a work as this must be measured. Thus viewed, its contribution is a substantial one and altogether worthy of the name and tradition of Charles Horton Cooley, to whom the book is dedicated.

University of Kansas

CARROLL D. CLARK

The Immigrant in American History. By MARCUS LEE HANSEN (edited by Arthur M. Schlesinger). Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1940. Pp. xi+230. \$2.50.

This series of essays on the immigrant in American history by Marcus Lee Hansen, formerly professor of history at the University of Illinois, is

published posthumously under the editorship of Schlesinger. After a lifetime spent in intensive grubbing and restrained writing, the author permitted himself the luxury of broad generalizations uncluttered with specific citations. The present work thus differs sharply from his *The Atlantic Migration, 1607-1860* (Cambridge, 1940) and *The Mingling of the Canadian and American Peoples* (New Haven, 1940), which are highly factual and closely documented.

One conclusion is that Europeans came to the United States usually from a desire for economic freedom rather than political or religious freedom or even economic gain. The routes of migration, the financial and other details of the voyage, and the role of the immigrant in our westward expansion are described in terms of what the author regards as typical in the first half of the nineteenth century. Those immigrants who did not settle in the towns appear not as frontiersmen but among the successors to the wave of native pioneer farmers. Contributions of the immigrant to our political institutions, to Puritanism, and to American culture in general, are also characterized. Despite many quantitative generalizations, Hansen apparently made little use of statistical sources or methods. His interpretations are woven into an engrossing tale that should stimulate further investigation by all the techniques available to the social scientist.

HENRY S. SHRYOCK, JR.

U. S. Bureau of the Census

The Gold Rushes. By W. P. Morrell. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1941. Pp. xi+427. \$3.00.

The best way to indicate the scope of Morrell's book is to say that the great California gold rush is merely Chapter IV in a work of eleven chapters. There were, indeed, many other rushes in the nineteenth century (the author discusses fourteen) which added millions of ounces of gold to the world's supply, lured men to migration, opened frontiers for later settlement, and so had a vital effect upon economic, social, and political life.

The California gold rush was not even typical of what occurred in rushes outside of the United States. Instead of the crime and recklessness characteristic of our Western camps, the New Zealand and Western Australian diggings were orderly and respectable. Instead of independent miners working for themselves, slaves were used in Brazil, serfs in Siberia, and hired natives and imported Chinese in South Africa. Where the Americans evolved their own laws and regulations, established their own vigilantes and miners' juries, the Klondike, Ballarat, and Bendigo miners looked to government to provide the administrative framework. The use of machinery, of heavily capitalized companies, of scientific knowledge—these are other contrasts to American mining ways.

Morrell has ransacked the literature (memoirs, letters, records) of each of the rushes he describes; his comment is pertinent and illuminating; no complaint can be made of his accuracy. His eight maps are satisfactory. For all its excellence, however, the book leaves one with a series of separate pictures.

There are no detailed comparisons and contrasts of the important rushes, no summary generalizations, and there are few estimates of the extent to which the discoveries stimulated trade, expanded credits, and diffused prosperity.

The book is one of the Pioneer Histories, edited in England by V. T. Harlow and J. A. Williamson, whose primary purpose is to describe "the expansion of the European peoples." Whatever its defects of synthesis, Morrell's work aptly portrays "the adventure, enterprise, and endurance in which the common man . . . showed the mettle of which he was made."

JAMES G. LEYBURN

Yale University

The Shaker Adventure: An Experiment in Contented Living. By MARGUERITE F. MELCHER. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1941. Pp. ix+319. \$3.00.

This story of the Shakers and their ways comes without the acid note that often betrays a certain kind of self-consciousness in the attitude of modern students of social life when they write *de re religia*. The author, evidently a lay historian, conveys an unmistakably sympathetic respect for the simplicity of Shaker living and the Shaker effort somehow to pattern the path toward "purely spiritual" experience—though the emphasis is that of a historian intent upon gathering fragmentary bits of information ere it be too late and weaving them into a story of the rise and decline of one of the least-understood sects in American religious history. The story emerges as a well-written, almost dramatic, account of the "gathering into gospel order" of the score of Shaker communities which were organized in New York State, New England, Kentucky, Ohio, and Indiana in the years between 1787 and 1826, and which reached the apex of their development as "experiments in contented living" in the middle decades of the 19th century.

The close connection between the success of the communities and the predominantly agrarian economy which could shelter in relative isolation the slow-moving business methods and the quality-conscious craftsmanship of the Shaker societies is pointed out. With the advance of urban industrial modes and the attendant mobilities in thinking and acting, the break-up of the Shaker patterns of living became merely a matter of time. Economically, the venture may be viewed as an example of successful adjustment to the uncertainties and insecurities of frontier agrarian living—an adjustment which released the creative and inventive energies of Shaker craftsmen and of Shaker husbandmen, and which produced the finest, most durable varieties of textiles, furniture, and utensils, and the best species of seed and livestock known to the shrewd buyers of "the world."

Apparently neither the functional simplicity, the elimination of every irrelevant ornamentation, nor the striking success which marked the venture, viewed from an economic aspect, were paralleled in the realm of the spirit. Serenity and quiet joy there were, but these were achieved through a ritual of song and dance that must be viewed as a frankly anti-rationalist excursion into religious ecstasy. The functional principle, so generally applied in

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Shaker technics of construction, was conspicuously absent in the Shaker attitude toward normal bodily processes. The sincerity and integrity, zeal and forthrightness, of the Shaker founders and of their converts in their revolt against "the ugly side of human nature," against the social and economic injustices of their day cannot be gainsaid. It remains to be demonstrated, however, that these qualities in the spirit of Shaker conduct can be linked in any way to the Shaker tenets of celibacy, communal sharing, and confession of sins—or that the prosperity of the Shaker societies stems in any part from living patterned to these principles.

ALLAN W. EISTER

Friends' Central School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Rural Life in Process. By PAUL H. LANDIS. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1940. Pp. xxviii+599. \$3.75.

The theme of this book is the development of a satisfying rural life as a part of urban industrial society. Recognizing the dominance of the city, the author says: "The intimate, homely, social virtues and vices of yesterday are being replaced by the impersonal, sophisticated, competitive patterns of an anonymous people; the simple, occupationally homogeneous society of yesterday is giving way to the highly complex and somewhat stratified society of a heterogeneous occupational world."

This is the wave of the future for rural life, to which rural people must adjust themselves as expeditiously as possible. Resistances to these changes are found chiefly in the characteristics of farming occupations and in the traditional rural culture. The author stresses the implications of these changes for personality formation, for rural organizations and institutions, and for emergent problems of farm youth, farm tenure, farm labor, rural welfare, and health.

The author's treatment of his major theme is strong and consistent throughout. This very consistency gives some point to four minor criticisms. (1) Standards of living are presented under the heading, "Economic Values in the New Standard of Living." Cost of living is emphasized with organized ways by which income can be increased. Social factors are mentioned briefly, but the treatment is quite inadequate. (2) There is little mention of the community and no adequate analysis of it. (3) Emphasis on personality development is a valuable contribution, but the treatment does not show marked improvement over others in rural sociology. (4) One looks in vain for any systematic mention or treatment of the various important kinds of social interaction and their role in "social process."

Judged by the number and quality of books in the field, rural sociology has now come of age. Distinctive in point of view, this book would have been considered outstanding five years ago. Now it takes its place alongside the others.

RAY E. WAKELEY

Ohio State College

For Conscience' Sake: A Study of Mennonite Migrations Resulting from the World War. By SANFORD CALVIN YODER. Goshen, Ind.: Mennonite Historical Society, 1940. Pp. xix+300. \$2.00.

The major subject of this work is indicated in the subtitle. As a background for the migrations, the author devotes the first four chapters to a historical sketch of the Mennonite group, from its origin in the Anabaptist movement to its status at the outbreak of the war. The post-revolutionary migrations of the Russian Mennonites to Canada, Mexico, and South America receive most detailed attention, but the intra-American migrations are also related. The appendix, containing the various governmental documents by which the Mennonites were to be granted exemption from military service and other privileges, and an extensive bibliography, add to the value of the book.

The author gives us a sympathetic insight into the life of a "sacred" group which attempts to maintain its isolation from the dominant "secular" society. Their non-resistance belief leads them to migrate whenever their religious freedom or isolation is seriously threatened. Various other techniques for maintaining their isolation are also noted, however. Thus the book is of value to sociologists as a case study of resistance to the processes of acculturation, apart from its historical value.

Although he acquires a deep sympathy and admiration for the Mennonites, the critical reader will wish for more scientific restraint. The book is filled with "moralizations" in praise of the Mennonites and in condemnation of the "worldly" society. However, since it was the purpose of the author so give a basis for understanding the behavior of these people rather than a sociological analysis of their migrations, the value-judgments may help to serve his purpose. In any case the student of acculturation and cultural isolation can ignore, if he wishes, the evangelistic tone which the Mennonite readers will praise.

WILBUR BROOKOVER

Butler University

State of the Masses. The Threat of the Classless Society. By EMIL LEDERER. New York: W. W. Norton & Company, 1940. Pp. 245.

The Dual State. A Contribution to the Theory of Dictatorship. By ERNST FRAENKEL. New York and London: Oxford University Press, 1941. Pp. xvi+248. \$3.00.

The German Army. By HERBERT ROSINSKI. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1940. Pp. 267. \$3.00.

Not by Arms Alone. By HANS KOHN. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1940. Pp. xii+161. \$1.75.

As the armies of the German Führer spread further and further over the terrain of Europe and Africa, it becomes more imperative that the social phenomenon of the Third Reich and its effects on the rest of the world be understood. There is no lack of books which scholar and layman can use to

formulate their opinions, but difficulty arises from the fact that most of the works treating of Hitler were conceived in a mood of hate rather than of calm evaluation. It is the lack of personal animosity of an emotional variety which lends value to the books named above, although all four of the writers view their subject with a democratic bias. It is upon such writing that a considered opinion concerning the permanency and the future of the totalitarian state can be made, even though these specific writers may be in serious error.

The *State of the Masses* is an essay setting forth one of the first sociological theories of modern dictatorship. Using a modified version of LeBon's crowd psychology, Lederer explains Fascism as the creation of a mass state, i.e., a state in which the attitudes of the masses of the people are polarized in the direction of a leader, who keeps them in a constant state of emotional ferment. In this state, group structure, the very essence of what we call society, is broken down. There exists only the party and the masses. Lederer believes that for the first time in the history of man we shall witness the phenomenon of a permanent crowd, manifesting all the characteristics of crowds that have existed in the past, except that it will manifest what seems to be the very antithesis of crowd behavior: permanent existence. It is in this hypothesis that the reviewer believes Lederer is guilty of serious error. While there is something to be said for the analysis of the German state as a crowd phenomenon, it would seem that a permanent National Socialist state would reveal the characteristics of an extended primary group, or of what has been called a sacred society, rather than a state of the masses. The question also arises as to the possibility of bringing about even a permanent sacred society in an industrial culture which by its very nature creates conflicting attitudes rather than strengthens the common ones necessary for such a society.

Fraenkel's work, a sociological interpretation of the legal structure of Germany, bears out Lederer's contention of the breaking down of group society, except for the fact that certain groups, particularly some of those in the upper regions of the economic structure, have not yet been completely absorbed by the state. Consequently there exists what Fraenkel calls the dual state: the one, the prerogative state, governing the political sphere of life which is constantly being redefined to take in larger and larger social areas; the other, the normative state, a holdover from the older legal structure, which governs by the means of constant norms those areas of behavior which the leader has not yet decreed shall fall within the authority of the "normless" prerogative state. This study is well-documented, and the author's analysis is convincing, but the reviewer again feels that the phenomena described present a picture of a time of transition. If the prerogative state becomes permanent, the apparently arbitrary decrees will eventually solidify into permanent norms in most respects, except that the norms will differ radically from those which are at present found within the boundaries of the normative state.

The German Army is a historical study of the rise and fall of the independence of a certain sphere of German life. By the time of the first World

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War, the army had won relative independence from the rest of the German society. This continued during its period of trial after the war, and indeed led finally to its own downfall, as its refusal to participate in the republic helped lead finally to the coming of Hitler. At the present time the army is no longer an independent group, having been absorbed over a period of time into the plans and activities of the National Socialist state. The book is also interesting to the sociologist in that several times the author discusses the class and caste structure of the German army, and the effects of this structure on the efficiency and morale of the men. While the analysis used in the latter is definitely peculiar to Rosinski, it verges on the sociological in many places, and nowhere departs so radically from accepted theory as to be in actual conflict.

The last of the books, *Not by Arms Alone*, is a further attempt by Hans Kohn to evaluate the world situation in relation to his own liberal philosophy. It consists of a series of essays ranging from a discussion of academic freedom to the problems presented by central Europe. It should be interesting to the sociologist as a work by an individual attempting to adjust to a new world, but contains little that will appeal to him in his scientific capacity.

WILLIAM L. KOLB

Oklahoma A. & M. College

Propaganda in Germany during the Thirty Years' War. By ELMER A. BELLER. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1940. Pp. ix+49. \$1.00.

War Propaganda and the United States. By HAROLD LAVINE and JAMES WECHSLER. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1940. Pp. x+363. \$2.75.

The analysis of propaganda has not kept pace with the practice of propaganda during the past twenty-five years. The two volumes under review are additions to the still brief list of propaganda analyses. They will eventually be filed as documents on propaganda in wartime for the use of a later synthetic analyst of war propaganda. The first volume is a ten-page essay plus forty pages of reproductions of selected pictorial broadsides and prints which were used in special pleading during the Thirty Years' War. Accompanying the prints are explanatory verses (from 30 to 100 lines each) in German, for which the author has provided excellent translations. The second book is a compilation of selected news items, anecdotes, fugitive gossip and rumor, and other timely stirrings of popular opinion in the World War of 1939-, which the authors have woven into their sometimes incisive essays on contemporary war propaganda. Beller's selections had to be made from materials on which time had already made the major selection by destroying large parts of the record, and Lavine and Wechsler faced the problem of selecting from a contemporary phantasmagoria of competing propagandas. The reviewer has no reason to believe that the authors of both books did not make competent selections. But in neither case did the materials permit of much of what I would recognize as formal propaganda analysis, that is, analysis of the amount, type, distribution, reception, and psychological and behavior effects of propaganda. While the study of propa-

ganda in the Thirty Years' War deals with a culture historically too remote to cast much light on the contemporary processes of special pleading, the account of war propaganda in the United States is too much of the moment and has been tinkered together before the evidence is sifted. Obviously, definitive accounts of contemporary war propaganda can be written only after the evidence is collected, the total radio output analyzed, and the pamphlets and newspaper material studied in an organized fashion. But one is convinced that Lavine and Wechsler have made shrewd selections of the straws in the wind—which is all that can be done at the moment.

Beller has produced a useful historical document for the student of propaganda. Also, it could be read with profit by the contemporary editorial writers and pamphleteers. Although the reviewer is not ordinarily over-impressed by historical parallels, believing that great functional differences are frequently understated in the quest for similarities, he will grant that Beller has provided excellently selected instances of similar propaganda appeals in the seventeenth and twentieth centuries. The author's translations are notably good. It is to be hoped that a series of equally good historical studies of propaganda will be issued by the Princeton University Press.

Considering the handicaps of anyone attempting to write about propaganda campaigns while they are in process, the authors of *War Propaganda and the United States* have produced an incisive introductory account. They have written for the general reader a reasonably balanced account of contemporary war propaganda by the Nazis, the Allies, and Russia and Finland. They write clearly, interestingly, and, at times, incisively. Their numerous illustrations should be very valuable to hard pressed analysts of contemporary international relations who are frantically writing speeches. The book is a contemporary cinematographic report and as such is naturally subject to the authors' biases in selection. Their flash-backs to World War I are frequently illuminating, if disturbing. The authors prove that they are astute observers of the opinion process. And if their phrases are sometimes overly vivid, even melodramatic, it is difficult for forceful mentalities not to coin such language in dramatic times.

WILLIAM ALBIG

University of Illinois

The War, First Year. By EDGAR McINNIS. New York: Oxford University Press, 1940. Pp. 312. \$1.50.

This Second War of Independence. By WILLIAM S. SCHLAMM. New York: E. P. Dutton and Co., 1940. Pp. 260. \$2.00.

These two books deal with the ever-present war. The first is a descriptive chronology; the second, a journalistic explanation, analysis, and prognosis.

McInnis has written a clear, succinct, factual account of the first year of the war. The first chapter is labeled "Background and Origin," and each of the succeeding four chapters deals with approximately three months. The first chapter enunciates the familiar pattern of the aggressions against

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One cannot ask for a profound analysis of the war at this time. The historical materials are not available and no man has adequate perspective. McInnis does not attempt significant analysis of political realities as related to political events, of the profound economic realities of competing economic systems, of military realities of tactics and equipment, or of the basically important values of civilian and military morale. Therefore, a reader in the future who had access only to this book could hardly understand the catastrophes reported in the closing pages.

But as a chronological account of events it is a neatly organized work which should be very useful to those in the social sciences who have the unhappy task of serving as expositors of the bewilderingly rapid military changes. There is a useful chronological table.

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During the past six months the reading public has received at least two scores of books reiterating the dominant items of the Nazi ideology and the ineffectual ideological, as well as physical, defense of their opponents. Mr. Schlamm has provided another such book, but his is written with unusual clarity. He has brought to these shores a journalistic ability of no mean order.

WILLIAM ALBIG

University of Illinois

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The problems of war planning in England are, it appears, subject to solution chiefly through reference to the pat formulae of the "pure" economists. Little wonder that these theorists dream of a world in which the demagogues will quit tampering with their "economic laws," and in which the electorate will become and remain sufficiently "enlightened" to see things sensibly, i.e., in their way.

A broader grasp of the pre-World War II picture in the British Empire would have withheld the National Economic and Social Planning Association (*italics mine*) from saying that the "change of economic objective from welfare to military aims is the key to the whole problem of war economics." This statement contains an assumption which the facts do not bear out, viz., that the "economic objective" in Great Britain before this war was "welfare." Whose objective? Whose welfare?

The last paragraph of the report, it strikes me, carries the professional broadmindedness of the professional economist too far. In this paragraph, the Association sets forth these—of its very few—conclusions:

"There are many shades of regulation, some of which are certainly necessary and desirable. *The extreme is complete State control, to which German methods approximate.* There is rigid control over foreign trade, and a system of rationing for the available resources of men, raw materials, and capital. *There is much to be said for complete control,* but whether it is desirable or not, the necessary administrative machine is not in existence in Great Britain and could not be improvised overnight" (*italics mine*).

ALFRED MCCLUNG LEE

New York University

The Boss. By DAYTON DAVID MCKEAN. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940. Pp. 285. \$3.00.

The Pattern of Politics. By JOHN T. SALTER. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940. Pp. 246. \$2.25.

D. D. McKean, in *The Boss*, tells the story of a political machine in an industrial commonwealth, and of Mayor Frank Hague, the illiterate, humorless man at the controls. Long before the German Fuehrer had an opportunity to put his methods into practice, Hague was suppressing freedom of speech and assembly in Jersey City, was receiving absolute obedience from officeholders, was intimidating the citizenry in general by tapping wires, by arrests on trumped-up charges, by excessive local taxes for the unfriendly, and by control of a subservient judiciary. Considering the subject matter, the author is to be commended for his restraint and objectivity. McKean places a grave responsibility for conditions in Jersey City upon such institutions in the community as the churches, the Chamber of Commerce, the veterans and the bar. To McKean "the Roman Catholic Church alone could depose Frank Hague in a moment if he did not keep peace with it." (Seventy-five percent of Jersey City's population is Catholic.) On the other hand, the author states that the business men of Jersey City "tolerate the machine because they can do nothing else." The student of politics is given

a vivid account of the American boss system in its sociological milieu—a system that thrived in all large municipalities in the late nineteenth century. One sees Jersey City, the highest-taxed city in the world, a haven for the open shop in which sweatshops thrive. However, it has a public payroll containing the highest salaries for a city of its size. In addition, Hague has turned Jersey City into one of the leading gambling centers in the country, at the same time that he shows an apt hand in “turning hospital beds into votes.” (Jersey City has the third largest hospital in the world, buildings and land costing about \$30,000,000.) McKean has added a significant case study to the literature of machine politics.

The Pattern of Politics, subtitled “The Folkways of a Democratic People,” is rather an informal report of the author’s keen observations of American political life than an analysis of the pattern of politics. The author displays a unique literary gift as he draws his anecdotes from the Bible, Machiavelli, and the byways and highways of homely American surroundings. He uses illustrations from different parts of the country: Wisconsin, Philadelphia, Oklahoma, New York. In his chapter “Of the People,” the author’s thesis that the American votes for “someone like himself, not someone better than himself,” though replete with entertaining illustrations, is not entirely convincing. The author does well, however, to stress the harmful effects of our local residence requirement for candidates for public office. In his useful chapter on leadership, Salter discusses with unstinting praise the qualities of leadership displayed by President Roosevelt, Mayor Hoan of Milwaukee, and Wendell Willkie. The book, however, is chiefly concerned with the local politician and is, therefore, a valuable supplement to the author’s *Boss Rule: Portraits in City Politics*. The absence of an index detracts somewhat from one of the finest collections of human interest stories centering around the American voter and politician. It is a gay book written by an author who loves and is thoroughly at home with his subject matter. The book deserves a wide and varied reading public.

BELLE ZELLER

Brooklyn College

The Unemployed Worker: A Study of the Task of Making a Living without a Job. By E. WIGHT BAKKE. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1940. Pp. xvi+465. \$4.00.

Citizens without Work. A Study of the Effects of Unemployment upon the Workers' Social Relations and Practice. By E. WIGHT BAKKE. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1940. Pp. xi+311. \$3.00.

These two companion volumes represent one of the most thoughtful studies of the effect of unemployment upon the worker and his family. Not the least of their value lies in the light they throw upon the worker’s world prior to unemployment. The original sources upon which these books are based include: (1) intensive case studies of 25 unemployed families in New Haven between 1932 and 1939; (2) participation as unemployed men in the life of the unemployed for several periods during the eight-year interval; (3)

testing of hypotheses by reference to interviews with 200 "married and together" unemployed families appearing in a random sample of 2,000 families in New Haven in 1933; (4) investigation of a 10 percent sample of unemployed households in New Haven in 1938.

As the title indicates, the first volume deals with the worker himself, his work experiences prior to unemployment and his economic adjustment after the loss of job. The volume contains detailed accounts of job hunting, expenditure adjustments, experiences with direct relief and work relief. The second volume treats the effect of unemployment upon religious, recreational, and political practices and upon family life. The writing is diffuse and somewhat repetitious; both volumes could have been shorter.

Space does not allow a detailed summary of results. Judging from the distribution of space and the quality of writing, the result nearest to the author's heart and interest centers around the relative self-reliance of the unemployed worker and the larger problems of class and class consciousness. The author attacks the prevalent belief that hitherto independent and self-reliant workers lost self-reliance as a result of unemployment and relief. First of all: "Men cannot lose more than they already have of foresight [and self-reliance]. The American worker does not possess all the initiative, foresight, self-reliance, and independence generally attributed to him. Men are intelligent enough to perceive the relation of their efforts to rewards and are on the whole stimulated only by goals which have a chance of attainment. True, the worker's goals (to play socially respected roles, to win a margin of economic security, to gain a degree of independence, and so on), imply striving towards self-reliance. But the world of experience gave the employed worker a very modest definition of these goals because it was actually "destructive of the basic assumption that a worker gains a standard of living in proportion to his skill and foresight." As to unemployment "it merely intensified the hurdles which already block the path of the worker." The author finds no certain evidence of the lack of self-reliance in the behavior of the unemployed. Rather he wants us to view their practices, including relief "chiselling," as methods more effectively adapted to getting economic security under new conditions. In a sense, the author is right in maintaining that apathy in the face of desperate need rather than "chiselling" and "talking poor mouth" would testify to loss of self-reliance. Nevertheless, there remains a distinction between ingenuity in wheedling grants out of a relief office and self-reliance operating through normal channels, of job holding. Those apprehensive over the loss of self-reliance are concerned precisely over the possibly growing habit (however justified by circumstances) of making a living through ingenious exploitation of relief. But the author is rather reassuring on this score also, at least with regard to the effects of work relief, if not of direct relief.

The section on social services and self-reliance is pregnant with suggestions for social policy. The central thesis appears to lie in the belief that ambition is directly proportionate to opportunities for achievement. Contrary to the prevalent view, the damage to ambition comes not from increasing

economic security but from reduction in resources causing modification of goals "until they have little ability to stimulate." The same is true of other than strictly economic goals.

There are some novel elements in the discussion of class. Contrary to a common illusion "workers have not succumbed to the American success philosophy." They recognize full well that they will remain workers for life. In spite of various barriers the trend is clearly in the direction of increasing class-consciousness. But while it has been generally assumed that increasing class-consciousness on the part of the workers is synonymous with revolutionary attitudes, this is not the author's contention. If workers, he maintains, can develop class institutions which achieve for them reasonable fulfillment of their working-class goals "the stability of our social institutions will increase and the attack on them from the ranks of labor will decrease." Many questions occur with regard to this interesting thesis: What are the chances of developing such working-class institutions and leadership? Will the workers' goals remain static or will their content change as the levels of achievement are raised? And so on.

The author confirms other studies in his conclusion that the institution of the family has "vast resources for meeting the strain [of unemployment]." He distinguishes several stages in the process of adjustment to unemployment: (1) momentum stability; (2) unstable equilibrium; (3) disorganization; (4) experimental readjustment; (5) permanent readjustment. This processual analysis is valuable and contains many interesting observations; but the particular stages seem more relevant to economic readjustment than to the sphere of family relations proper. It is reasonable to believe that under the impact of the disaster, family relations become more or less disorganized and that this disequilibrium will be followed by some accommodation, perhaps on a new level. But these stages take such different forms in various families that the concept becomes formal and perhaps of not much practical use. Thus in some families the stage of disorganization is hardly discernable, and in general bears little resemblance to the stage as described in the book. Other families are "adjusted" on a plane which fits best the description of disorganization.

With regard to the methodology of the study it appears to the reviewer that the cases could have been used more consistently as *checks* rather than merely illustrations of hypotheses. Granting that the number of cases was small (one wonders, incidentally, why were not the 200 cases used as checks on hypotheses derived from the 24 cases for the section on the family), it would have still been possible and desirable to submit the hypotheses to more rigid tests. The author cannot protect himself by claiming that his task is to show what reactions are observed rather than how often. As a matter of fact, whether he uses figures or not he must and does make assumptions about dominant reactions. Whether he is discussing self-reliance of the unemployed, the goals and attitudes of the employed, recreational practices, or what not, he constantly makes generalizations about both what is dominant and why. He must do so, for he and his readers are interested in what

generally happens rather than in what might happen under certain exceptional circumstances. Inconclusive as it may be to say that 13 out of 24 or 120 out of 200 exhibited a certain reaction, this statement is superior, on many grounds, to an unsupported generalization by the author.

In conclusion, the reviewer would like to raise a question concerning the theoretical focus of the study. Valuable as it may be for practical purposes to know the social effects of unemployment, the problem has limitations from a scientific point of view. Whenever a study proposes to trace in a fan-like fashion the effects of some event, the results are bound to be highly heterogeneous unless the focus is precisely upon the power of the event to cause such changes. According to the Preface and the Introduction, the framework of the study is stated as viewing human beings in concrete life situations "working towards certain goals within a cultural environment. With the use of personal equipment . . . by means of certain practices, economic, familial, recreational, religious, and political." This has great merit as a point of view from which to study many social situations, *but it does not provide a scientific focus*. The fact is that the study does not yield any new principles about this total life situation. Its highly interesting results bear upon a variety of subjects: (1) the relation of the workers' goals to their experience and of ambition to goals; (2) reaction of family to strain; (3) the church and the unemployed. These topics do not really gain much from being discussed in one volume. Indeed, each one would gain if it alone were the object of the study. But these considerations raise issues too complex and debatable to be dealt with adequately within the limits of a review.

MIRRA KOMAROVSKY

Barnard College

Democracy through Public Opinion. By HAROLD D. LASSWELL. Menasha, Wis.: George Banta for Chi Omega Fraternity, 1941. Pp. 176. \$1.50.

This is one of the Chi Omega Service Fund Studies. It is elementary, but presents some novel ideas, an eloquent statement of the nature of democracy, and some practical suggestions for making democracy work better. It shows that democracy in America is indigenous and that we always must be on the alert lest the forms of democracy pervert or destroy its substance. Private, intimate, experience (cf. the folk beliefs that "politicians are all crooks or incompetents," that legislators "merely talk," etc.) may sap the vitality of and eventually destroy democracy. Publics easily become crowds. There are three main results from public opinion: adjustment, catharsis, violence. Only the first is consistent with democracy. This leads to an incisive analysis of "How to Think about What We Read, See, and Hear."

At this point, I think the analysis becomes slightly fuzzy because of an inadequate definition of propaganda as the attempt "to influence attitudes on controversial subjects" (page 42). This would make all communication propaganda, because all matters are controversial to some people; even the

attempt to "influence" a boy to learn the multiplication table might be controversial from his point of view. Many things we try to teach are "controversial" in the opinion of both the children and their parents. Propaganda should be defined so that there can be no difference of opinion as to what is propaganda. The definition must be unambiguously inclusive and exclusive. It is the attempt of a person or group to influence public opinion so as to advance the interests of the propagandists by secret, illegal, and immoral means. Thus, publicity, advertising, education, political campaigning, etc., become propaganda only when the identity and purpose of the promoters are *concealed*. If you know *who* is doing *what* and *why*, it is not propaganda, no matter how much lying, suggesting, special pleading, and other persuasive techniques are used.

The chapter, "Democracy Needs a New Way to Talk," is very interesting—but at least as old as Mary P. Follett. (See my "Theory and Practice of State Administration," *Amer. Pol. Sci. Rev.*, June, 1938, which stems from my *A Socialized State*, 1921, which stems largely from Follett.) Lasswell presents the concept of the "clarifier," which seems sensible, and "Free Speech, Yes: Free Incitement, No," shows how talk may be something more than "mere." The Instant Reply Plan would make greater freedom of speech possible and would aid rather than hamper the democratic process. The Rule of Balance suggests that only when neither government nor "free enterprise" can dominate can democracy be preserved. The same idea could be applied to all institutions. Monopoly of any kind, and especially monopoly of voting, speaking, educating, printing, governing, and selling, always destroys democracy. One might almost say that democracy is a social system in which the principle of balance prevails.

This is a stimulating little book on a very hackneyed subject. Most discussions of democracy are singularly barren but this one is fruitful.

Even little books, and especially *good* little books, deserve indexes.

READ BAIN

Miami University

Prologue to Politics. By CHARLES E. MERRIAM. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1939. Pp. ix+118. \$1.50.

Modern Dictatorship. By DIANA SPEARMAN. New York: Columbia University Press, 1939. Pp. 272. \$2.75.

Modern Economic and Social Systems. By RUSSELL E. WESTMEYER. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1940. \$3.00.

Here are three books which attack the problem of modern government in an attempt to offer some insight into the nature of the totalitarian challenge to democracy. Though all deal with different facets of the same problem, each is complementary, in a sense, to the others. Merriam sketches the broad outlines of the issue in a slender volume containing the text of four lectures delivered recently at Chicago. Miss Spearman probes into the political, theoretical, and psychological backgrounds of a number of modern

dictatorships, and Westmeyer has written a fairly comprehensive and non-technical account of all the recent "isms," from Utopian Socialism to the modern totalitarian ideologies. Together, these three books constitute a fairly well-rounded and well-balanced discussion of the problem.

Miss Spearman has made a careful study of the emergence of dictatorships in a number of countries, including many less obvious examples as well as the "Big Three." If she undertook her study in the hope of finding a common red thread of causative factors, her success in finding the thread and tracing its course is not particularly striking. Her first chapter is rather a jumbled country-by-country account which confuses rather than enlightens the reader who wishes to know how these dictatorships came into existence. Later, however, she hits a better stride and her account of the psychological background of dictatorship is definitely to be put on the credit side of the ledger. To be sure, the trained social psychologist might not find in it much new material or a particularly fresh approach, but the average reader should find it stimulating. For one thing, the writing avoids that lush jungle of technical verbiage into which some psychologists retreat when they seem unwilling to attempt to impart their wisdom to any except a limited number of their *confrères* who have a similar predilection for the gloomy mazes of obscurantism.

The political scientist will not agree, however, with many of the comments in a chapter devoted to the authoritarian tendencies in nineteenth-century democratic thought and experience. The interpretation is strained and the author has had to resort to a good deal of word-juggling in an effort to show, for example, that the individualism of the time led naturally to totalitarianism because the former led to hero-worship.

Merriam is unfailingly optimistic concerning the future of democracy. His is a deep and unshakable faith; his essay on the ideal state is the work of a man who, though fully aware of the perils of the present, relies upon the perspective of history and the ultimate, inherent rationality of men to assure the eventual "emergence of law; the rise of order; the organization of justice, of common counsel, of rational discussion, of management, not merely humane, but human. I see the growth of liberty. I see the gleam of the wings of human personality emerging from its chrysalis, the wide-ranging and soaring triumph of the supremacy of the commonweal." These are brave words for a time like this, and when one reads them in conjunction with the author's keen analysis of the steps which must be taken to strengthen the basis and machinery of the democratic order, one feels a sense of reassurance that all may not yet be lost.

For those who seek to document Merriam's argument by examining in greater detail the various recent trends in political thought, the Westmeyer book is a convenient and comprehensive summary. It is not critical and it makes little attempt to compare the similar features of the systems described, but it is, nonetheless, a handbook of considerable merit.

GRAYSON KIRK

Columbia University

Children in a Depression Decade. (*The Annals*, November, 1940.) Ed. by JAMES H. BOSSARD. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science, 1940. Pp. xi+287.

This volume of the *Annals* is eloquent testimony to the importance attached to the place of child welfare in the programs of various public and private social agencies. Sounding the keynote, Katherine Lenroot wrote the introduction to this summary, and some thirty other experts presented the trends within their specialized areas. They make clear how much the years 1930-1940 intensified many adjustment problems of childhood, which in turn resulted in much greater responsibility on the part of governmental agencies. The various topics discussed are presented under six general headings.

1. "The Changing Mathematics of Child Welfare" makes plain the problems arising out of the shift in age groups attendant upon a restricted birth-rate. Warren Thompson concludes that children may receive no economic benefits in the long run because of their inevitably increased burden in the support of the aged.

2. Under the caption "The Changing Social Background," the status of State legislation and the part played by the Federal agencies in welfare programs is set forth. Schools seem to be placing much less emphasis upon formal "academic" subjects and are stressing preparation for practical living. Economic progress is not so evident. More than 57 percent of families in the United States live on less than fifteen hundred dollars.

3. "The Changing Family Background" is reviewed with reference to practice and theory. Groves, Gruenberg, and Himes discuss practical problems of marriage clinics, parent education, and birth control. Folsom holds that unregulated pair relationship might possibly result in permanent and lasting types of family structures. He believes that under any type of permissible arrangement people will continue to live in small families rather than in groups with communal living arrangements. The function of the wife and mother, however, will probably be much altered.

4. "Changes with Some General Problems of Child Welfare." In this section, progress in maternal and child health is noted, although there is still too high a death rate in early infancy. Nutrition work with children is shown to have yielded important results. The social function of play and of mental hygiene is also ably presented.

5. "A Decade of Dealing with Special Groups" deals with the handicapped child, child labor, special protective measures, changed attitudes toward children born out of wedlock, care of dependent children, foster home care, adoption procedures, behavior problems of children, progress in the prevention of juvenile delinquency, and the development of child welfare in rural and other communities. Of significant interest is Ora Pendleton's review of accumulated experience with reference to adoption of children and the importance of considering the baby as a personality. In final analysis both the baby and the home must be satisfying to each other. The author disagrees with those kindly people who wish to destroy the rec-

ords of the child's origin. All adopted children have a right to know who their natural parents are.

6. "By Way of Perspective." Dr. James S. Plant does an excellent piece of work in summarizing the objectives we must have for our children in a democracy. Children must be trained to tolerance by tolerant relationships within the family. They must develop capacities for leadership, and for defining values. They must be allowed to grow, yet at the same time learn to conform to the law. All this involves a training in the rigors and values of scientific method as well as development of a sense of social responsibility.

Roy A. Helton sounds a final warning note in his article, "Are We Doing Too Much for Our Children?" by insisting that those in the upper income and well-to-do brackets are handicapping their children by over-indulgence, by making our educational programs too easy, by over-emphasizing the needs for recreation.

The volume contains an index to previous issues of the *Annals* devoted to related topics.

MABEL A. ELLIOTT

University of Kansas

Methods of Family Living Studies: Income-Expenditure-Consumption. By ROBERT MORSE WOODBURY. London: P. S. King and Son, Ltd., 1940. Distributed in the United States by the International Labour Office, Washington, D. C. Pp. viii + 144. \$1.00.

This study supplements and brings up to date the report on *Methods of Conducting Family Budget Enquiries* published by the International Labour Office in 1926. Although roughly similar in scope to the earlier report, the current study contains a special chapter on food-consumption and dietary surveys and measures up well to the broadened title. Designed primarily as "a guide for use in planning future enquiries," it describes the chief purposes of family living studies and discusses the major problems encountered in planning and executing such studies—problems of class and family coverage, of family sampling, of collection of data, and of analysis of the data collected.

The discussion centers not around recommended *standards* of investigation but rather around the methods actually employed in recent family living studies. Since most of these studies have paid scant attention to such important matters as proper sampling, checks on the accuracy of the data, and adequate statistical analysis of the results, the reviewer doubts that this approach resulted in as good a "guide for use in planning future enquiries" as the Labour Office could have produced if it had undertaken to set up specific practical recommendations as to the methods of making and analyzing family living studies. Such recommendations of the Labour Office would have been widely adopted; and the increased uniformity of practice would have facilitated inter-regional and international comparisons. Even in its existing form, the report could have been made more effective by fuller development of the text discussion on some of the neglected aspects of methodology in expenditure and consumption investigations.

Despite these shortcomings, however, the new report stands out as a definite contribution in its field. It is of particular value as a summary of the methods employed in the most important family living studies published in various countries over the past fifteen years. In this connection Appendix III warrants special attention, since it consists of six excellent tables showing the principal characteristics of the family living studies discussed in the report.

HELEN C. FARNSWORTH

*Food Research Institute
Stanford University*

Studies in Income and Wealth. Volume III. By the Conference on Research in National Income and Wealth. New York: National Bureau of Economic Research, 1939. \$3.50.

In this volume, a number of critics carefully appraise the estimates which various statisticians have made of income and wealth distribution in the United States.

First, C. L. Merwin, Jr. presents a well-balanced analysis of the different attempts to estimate the distribution of wealth and income by size classes. In general, he maintains a thoroughly scientific viewpoint, but twice he seems to depart from it: first, when he infers that it is desirable for the statistician to have some goal beyond a clear presentation of the facts; and second, when he prefers a single distribution of income to four different distributions, each corresponding to an admittedly distinct concept of income.

In his discussion of Mr. Merwin's paper, Simon Kuznets first makes some interesting observations on chronological tendencies in the gathering of statistics.

The principal new material presented in Part Two of the book consists of figures set forth by Charles Stewart showing the distribution of wealth in the higher income brackets for each year from 1922 to 1936 inclusive. These figures have been derived by using the Lehmann method of combining net estate data with capitalized dividend data for each income class. Milton Friedman offers arguments and statistical computations designed to show that Stewart's figures are unreliable. In the opinion of the reviewer, however, Friedman's criticisms are not well substantiated by the evidence which he presents.

In Part Three, Enid Baird and Selma Fine describe the way in which Federal Income Tax data were used by the National Resources Committee to estimate for the upper brackets the distribution of family incomes. It would be very difficult if not impossible to present in 54 pages a more accurate and satisfactory description. Yet, because of over-brevity, it comes far from enabling any other statistician to duplicate the operations performed.

In Part Four of the report, R. W. Goldsmith and Walter Salant present the results of an attempt to measure the volume and components of saving in the United States. As a study in methodology, the attempt is interesting. Furthermore, a real service has been rendered by presenting what are pre-

sumably carefully compiled series of records or estimates for numerous variables useful in making income, wealth, or saving estimates. For many of the series, compilation of the data has doubtless required much effort. The estimates of total saving as finally presented, however, are weak, for they depend mainly upon differences between large quantities which are themselves nothing but rough estimates.

In Part Five, Clark Warburton and Simon Kuznets compare in detail various estimates of the value of the nation's output of commodities and services. The fact that the total for 1929 arrived at by Warburton is \$95,050,000,000 as compared to Kuznet's estimate of \$83,424,000,000 shows how far from exact such estimates are.

In Part Six, Robert R. Nathan analyzes several of the problems involved in allocating income to the various States. He shows that the method of apportionment which is best for one purpose may be very faulty for another purpose. His paper is a model of clear and effective presentation.

The book closes with an attempt by nine authorities to rationalize the complicated system of State subsidies built up by the Federal Government. While the contributions of the various authors naturally differ in merit, the whole volume is worthy of careful study by anyone seriously interested in the problem of measuring income or wealth in the United States.

WILLFORD I. KING

New York University

Introduction to Housing: Facts and Principles. By EDITH ELMER WOOD. Washington, D. C.: United States Housing Authority, 1940. Pp. x-161. \$.30.

Longshoremen and Their Homes. By ELIZABETH OGG. New York: Greenwich House, 1939. Pp. 58+Appendix. \$.10.

Housing the Masses. By CAROL ARONOVICI. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1939. Pp. xv+291. \$3.50.

Housing for the Machine Age. By CLARENCE ARTHUR PERRY. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1939. Pp. 261. \$2.50.

Public Housing in America. Compiled by M. B. SCHNAPPER. New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1939. Pp. 369. \$1.25.

Dr. Edith Elmer Wood is a recognized leader in the housing movement. Numerous facts concerning the predicament of the inhabitants of slums, and advocacy of public housing as a remedy, have for many years been flowing from her pen. In some ways this little publication, *Introduction to Housing*, is a summary of both facts and principles, the latter of which the reviewer would call advocacies. Indeed, the book itself might well be called a Primer of Housing. It so thoroughly reflects the author's interest in remedying the slum conditions of our cities, however, that it might more aptly be described as a primer on bad housing with suggestions for correcting the situation through public housing.

The second of the publications, *Longshoremen and Their Homes*, is a description of the conditions of housing of 278 longshoremen, living on Lower West Side waterfront, New York City. The facts and figures given well illustrate substandard conditions that obtain among this one occupational group.

Housing the Masses is a discussion of the whole field of housing. Neither the good, bad, nor indifferent are emphasized, though all are fully recognized in every chapter. The book, by the nature of its composition and stimulating thought suggestions, shows that it is the outgrowth of many years of study, teaching, and active participation in the domains of housing and city planning. No specific cause is pleaded, though the open-minded reader would have to acknowledge, on perusing the pages of this publication, that something much more vital than is now in progress needs to be done to lift the level of housing in the United States. All the conclusions of the book appear to be based on one hypothesis: under our present system, the use of technique, and by the adjustment laws and economic organization, the improvement of housing conditions within this country are within our reach.

Housing for the Machine Age is an exposition of the neighborhood unit formula as a method of urban living, with explanation and illustrations on how to effect the development of neighborhoods in rebuilding blighted areas of the cities and in places of new city development. The neighborhood unit in city living is the answer to the question on how to withstand the developing blights of the cities on the one hand and how to provide for the maintenance of urban areas in developing territory on the other hand.

The last book in this list, though published under the title of *Public Housing in America*, is much more than a treatise on public housing. It is a compilation of essays, addresses and reports produced by the most outstanding authorities on housing in America. There may be contributions to the subject which are not included in the collection, but there is not a single contribution which should have been omitted.

BRUCE L. MELVIN

Division of Social Research
Washington, D. C.

Public Relief, 1929-1939. By JOSEPHINE C. BROWN. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1940. Pp. xvii+524. \$3.50.

Here is an extremely useful book. As its title indicates, it provides an account of public measures taken to alleviate the distress which grew out of the depression. The opening chapters, descriptive of previously existing governmental arrangements for meeting outdoor relief and of the long-drawn-out controversy of public versus private charity, furnish an excellent base from which the author launches her well-documented story. There is no appeal to emotion nor, on the other hand, is there a dry recitation of a sequence of events. Miss Brown is interesting while being thorough, without being unnecessarily exhaustive. She writes from a national or, rather, a Federal point of view, it may be presumed, because she was in the thick of

the work as a Federal official under Harry Hopkins. The student of government will note also that the decade was marked by Federal assumption of responsibility in an area of public functioning which had hitherto rested within the States in the traditional local responsibility for outdoor relief.

At this point the book seems incomplete. The translation of functioning based upon community attitudes and measures to one based upon State and finally Federal underwriting is not sufficiently sharp to reveal the character and importance of its impact upon those for whom the expanded programs were undertaken. Perhaps, however, this might better be the subject of a companion volume, as yet not available. Certainly an account of the same ten years, from the point of view of a county and its administrative mechanisms as they were shifted and changed, would well supplement what Miss Brown has to say. Complementing both might be the story as seen by the group in need, affected as they were not only by the broad enunciations of policy but by those uncounted implementing regulations constantly in flux, the operation of any one of which might mean for a family in distress the bitter difference between help and inability to obtain it.

The writing of these books would not detract from the value of that which is here under review. Its chapters on Federal-State-Local Relations, How Relief was Given and The Methods of Helping People and Standard of Aid are particularly essential for a reasonably adequate understanding of "this business of relief."

Bringing together much that has been available only in the fugitive literature of the past year, the book serves to heighten interest in the forthcoming report of the National Resources Planning Board study of Long Range Work and Relief Policies under the directorship of Dr. Evaline Burns of Columbia University. At the same time Miss Brown has managed to combine attributes looked for by the lay reader, the student, and the administrative official. In view of the greatly enlarged public or governmental exercise of responsibility, it is appropriate that the introduction is by Fred K. Hoehler, Director of the American Public Welfare Association. In this Hoehler stresses the significance of Federal functioning in the field of public assistance.

P. D. FLANNER

American Public Welfare Association

Administration of Public Welfare. By R. CLYDE WHITE. New York: American Book Co., 1940. Pp. xiv+527. \$3.50.

The Illinois Emergency Relief Commission. By FRANK Z. GLICK. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940. Pp. xv+247. Lithoprint.

Public Assistance. Volume I. American Principles and Policies; In Five Parts: With Select Documents. By EDITH ABBOTT. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940. Pp. xviii+894. \$4.50.

Each of these products of the University of Chicago School of Social Service Administration fills its niche in the two-foot bookshelf enabling one to understand the changes, and resistances to change, in the expanding

group responsibility for care of what used to be called the dependent, delinquent, and defective classes. Each is valuable for bringing together material from scattered or fugitive sources not available to the average student or sociologist.

White, drawing largely upon Indiana and Illinois experience, gives a bird's-eye view of public social services and organizational problems involved in coordinating assorted services under varying degrees of administrative and financial responsibility, federal, state, and local. Part One summarizes briefly past and present forms of organization, while Part Two covers methods of treatment. The remaining four sections discuss, as special phases, personnel, finance, public relations, and statistics and research. The treatment is comprehensive, balanced, and concrete. The selected bibliography is especially good as including items readily available, making the text useful for undergraduate courses and also as a framework for graduate treatment of the subject. Incidentally, other 1940 publications already make additions to such a list necessary.

The era of emergency relief is ten years old now, and Illinois is one of the few states retaining the "emergency" concept and name. Glick, who was associate executive secretary of the Illinois Emergency Relief Commission almost from its beginning until relief was turned back to 1,755 local poor districts in 1936, analyzes as a participant observer the general financial and administrative aspects of the IERC, which typified in many ways the setup in other states. The sections on personnel and public relations are a special contribution. He concludes that "the vast sums spent on an inadequate federal work program could, if used as federal grants-in-aid to the states for relief, have gone a long way toward providing an adequate relief program competently administered." This is a case study of a phase of social control in a democracy, although not explicitly sociological. There is no index.

Volume I of Miss Abbott's latest addition to the compilations in the welfare field in the Social Service Series covers the "legal right to relief," legal aspects of settlement, medical care, the emergency relief period, and federal participation in direct relief. Volume II will deal with work relief and developments since the passage of the Social Security Act. Some two hundred pages of introductory comment precede the documents, which are mostly statutes, court decisions, and official reports. The result is a valuable source book; but with any such compilation the question may be raised as to how far actual administration differs from the picture given by rules and regulations. For the sociologist, here is rich material on change and persistence of social attitudes.

DAVID K. BRUNER

Northwestern University

A Survey of the Social Services in the Oxford District. Volume II: Local Administration in a Changing Area. London: Humphrey Milford, 1940. Pp. xi+494. 14 maps and diagrams. \$6.00.

Volume I of this series was reviewed in a previous issue (April, 1940). Volume II deals with the working of the individual social services. This vol-

ume has been delayed owing to the outbreak of the war in September, 1939. The material has not been brought up to date of publication and the pre-war period mentioned throughout refers to the war of 1914-18.

The report is more than a cross-section survey of the social agencies of this particular district. It is an effective presentation of the growth and the present status of the national policy and the machinery for carrying on social service activities. Into this setting of the national background is placed a specific analysis of the way in which each activity is administered in the Oxford District. The result is a very clear and comprehensive description of this type of work in the British Isles.

These studies, like those of the first volume, are made by a group of experts and cover the general fields of education, relief of distress, personal health services, environmental health services, public utilities, and town and country planning. Volume II, in the opinion of the reviewer, contains in compact form a relatively complete and readily understandable discussion of the specialized social service agencies and activities in the British Isles.

M. C. ELMER

University of Pittsburgh

Problems of Administration in Social Work. By PIERCE ATWATER. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1940. Pp. xii+319. \$3.50.

There are two major schools of thought about social work administration. One holds that administration is an independent field of knowledge, the mastery of which has limited relation to the content of a given field of administrative practice. The second school, to which the author definitely belongs, holds that effective social work administration grows out of a thoroughgoing knowledge and working experience in the specific content of the social services, plus certain added personal qualifications and practical techniques of administration. This new volume portrays its origin in realistic, extensive, and successful experience of the author in both public and private social work. Adhering closely as it does to the techniques required in the daily operation of social work administration, it will, at times, be disappointing to the abstract theorist, but most useful to those faced with the concrete demands of social work administration.

Parts of the manuscript will be disappointing to any who would simplify administration into a series of simple formulas or a single philosophy of social work. Sentences and paragraphs throughout the book reflect the continued awareness of the practicing administrator of the many dilemmas in administration resulting from conflicting community forces and contradictory philosophies. The author is unwilling to retreat into an ivory tower in which solutions are simple, people and agencies readily adaptable, convictions easy to administer, and compromises highly successful. At times the writing suggests this method of seeking compromises when "irresistible forces" meet "immovable objects." One or two chapters, such as the chapter on "Personnel Policies," suggest that they might have been written under the burden of a necessary outline.

There are many chapters that are an outstanding contribution to an

understanding of social work administration. Such chapters include titles as "Personal Qualifications for Executive Work," "Operating Policies and How They are Determined," "The Social Work Executive and Politics," "Research as an Operating Procedure." Such chapters, and many others, reflect a ripened experience and an effective awareness of the interrelationships of private and public social services, with many methods suggested by which these relationships can be reviewed and strengthened.

The volume covers both day-by-day administrative problems of the executive and the broad problems of administration, whether in centralized social planning and fund raising, in individual agency organization, or in the public relations of both specialized and general fields in social work. The section on "Field Training for Administration" will prove particularly interesting for faculty and schools and administrators providing field work opportunity in this field.

ROBERT S. WILSON

*National Association for Traveler's
Aid and Transient Service*

Theory and Practice of Social Case Work. By GORDON HAMILTON. New York: Columbia University Press, 1940. Pp. 371. \$3.00.

Gordon Hamilton's text in social case work brings realignments between current theory and current practice in social case work. It describes case work practice, philosophy, and technique in terms which escape the administrative boundaries of any one particular field or administrative setting, while drawing freely on many fields of case work experience. There is no attempt to universalize some private version of social case work, or some particular skill of theory, but to draw freely upon the old and the new insofar as any concept or experience seems to contribute productively in the everyday experience of practice.

Miss Hamilton differentiates between a concept of case work which might seem to make it roughly synonymous with psychotherapy and, on the other hand, historical theories of social case work that draw heavily on the sociological and which might view case work as activity on an omnibus of social problems irrespective of their inner meanings and associated feelings from the client's point of view. She views case work as genuinely "social case work" and sees the bulk of treatment as directed toward social situations, social relationships and the reality-facing side of life experiences, rather than intra-psychic conflicts. The emphasis of the text is less on the research aspects of the exploratory practice of social case work and the clinician's approach to certain types of case work situations, than it is on the basic case work situations of everyday practice.

Throughout the book one gets the impression of wide professional knowledge together with an earthy realism about the concrete demands of practice. Students and veterans of social work alike will find in this text new insights into many of the repetitive problems of case work practice. In it also is fresh assurance that there is a common body of tested and sifted

knowledge and skill, and that retesting and rethinking is continuously under way in a variety of fields of practice.

ROBERT S. WILSON

*National Association for Travelers' Aid
and Transient Service*

Introduction to Social Case Work. By JOSEPHINE STRODE. New York: Harper and Bros., 1940. Pp. vii+219. \$2.50.

The author designed the book to fill three recognized gaps in education for social work. The primary purpose is: (1) to meet the needs of instructors of undergraduate courses in social case work and of supervisors of staff development programs in public and private welfare agencies; (2) secondarily, to afford content for social workers who wish to increase their understanding of social case work and prepare for civil service promotional examinations; and (3) to help committees of examiners in the preparation of questions for civil service tests.

The book covers the history and theory of social work; the theory and technical methods of social case work; and a discussion of selected social problems requiring case work services. Most teachers, however, will regret that the wide scope of the book, which attempts to treat in one volume the subject matter ordinarily handled in a minimum of three courses, necessarily results in a too superficial consideration of many of the subjects discussed. The references are well chosen to supplement the chapter discussions for the most part, and it is assumed that any teacher would expect to depend largely on supplementary discussions. The author has a lucid and readable style, and her own wide background of experience is apparent in her condensation of material.

ANNE F. FENLASON

University of Minnesota

Teaching Social Case Work. By KARL DE SCHWEINITZ and others. Reprinted from *The Family*. New York: Family Welfare Association of America, 1939-40. Pp. 81. 50 cents.

These eight articles by leading teachers in representative schools of social work meet a need of long standing, for there is almost no literature on teaching social case work. The writers deal briefly with the historical development of case discussion as a teaching method, and describe specifically the content and methods of their courses. A basic agreement on case work philosophy and objectives runs throughout, amplified by a variety of helpful and practical individual suggestions regarding materials and procedures. While relationship to other areas of the social work curriculum and to the social sciences is recognized, the unique field and method of social case work is clearly differentiated and described. The publication should be of value to all teachers of social case work in testing the validity and effectiveness of their courses.

ALICE L. TAYLOR

University of Nebraska

Social Work Year Book, 1941: A Description of Organized Activities in Social Work and in Related Fields. Sixth Issue. Edited by RUSSELL H. KURTZ. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1941. Pp. 793. \$3.25.

This is a publication invaluable as a reference for the professional social worker and for the student in schools of social work, as well as for the member of that increasingly larger group of lay persons becoming aware of the implications of the professional aspects of social welfare.

The two sections of the volume serve two distinct purposes. The first of these sections is made up of a description by authoritative contributors of the present-day organizations and activities in the field of social work and allied interests in the United States. While any review of these separate articles is not feasible, it may be noted that in general they follow a uniform pattern—first, stating the significance of the topic, then giving a brief historical summary, and finally discussing the present aspects. This section thus provides an encyclopedia of social welfare in its broader connotation. The second section consists of a comprehensive directory of both privately-supported and of governmental organizations, State and national, which function in the various fields of activity described in the first section.

Special reference should be made to the selected bibliography which the authors of each descriptive article have provided.

Some reorganization has resulted in a more unified treatment of certain fields, and the inclusion of new material enables this issue to meet new and changing needs. The omission of the description in the 1939 issue of *Public Assistance in the States* is not a great loss, as this is easily available in a more complete form in publications of public departments.

The extreme carefulness with which the index has been prepared (e.g., its indication of cross references and sectional articles) adds greatly to the facility of using the publication.

MARGARET CREECH

University of Chicago

Supervision in Public Health Nursing. By VIOLET H. HODGSON. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1939. Pp. xii+376, 21 diagrams. \$2.50.

Hospital Public Relations. By ALDEN B. MILLS. Chicago: Physicians' Record Co., 1939. Pp. xix+361, 16 illustrations. \$3.75.

The Patient's Dilemma. By HUGH CABOT. New York: Reynal and Hitchcock, Inc., 1940. Pp. x+284. \$2.50.

Hodgson's book is essentially a text in public health practice, since it relates to the public health nurse. As such, it will appeal only to specialists in public health nursing and administration and possibly to those engaged in medical social work. The framework in which the public health nurse operates, the organization and administration of public health agencies, is discussed fully. Within this milieu, the author describes and analyzes problems of policy and administration common to the supervisor and her subordinates. This book has real value to practitioners in this field.

About half of Mills' book is devoted to the need, bases, and philosophy necessary and desirable in a well-formulated public relations program. Although presented in its application to hospitals, this framework is of such an order as to apply equally well to any other type of organizational or institutional undertaking. In a sense, Mills has attempted to put the public relations field on a scientific and more ethical basis. He states that work in this field must have its roots in a sound foundation and must never be confused with the tear-jerker, high-pressure variety of advertising which, more often than not, is aimed at promoting an article or program of dubious value.

In his public relations program for hospitals, he indicates what is desirable in the way of good hospital service and how this and aspects other than the strictly medical ones should be presented to the public. In this way, he takes the reader behind the curtain and shows graphically the multifarious functions and problems of the hospital, the mutual responsibilities of the hospital to the profession and to the community, and of these groups to the hospital.

To the ever-increasing list of books on America's quest for health security is now added *The Patient's Dilemma*. In the preface, Cabot states that this is no "documented, scientific treatise upon a complicated economic, social, and professional problem . . . [but rather] an expression of a philosophy." In many respects this book is an interpretation of the many significant problems raised anent specialization, the costs of medical care, and medical needs, in his earlier work, *The Doctor's Bill*.

Cabot is not content with modern medicine, and he states his position forcefully. In an attempt to find some solution to the many problems facing the medical profession and the public, he examines critically various insurance and tax-supported schemes to provide medical services. Unsparringly, he destroys the obfuscations of organized medicine in its stand against some of these proposed schemes, and with surgical dexterity he extirpates the "hoary shibboleth" of "free choice" of physicians and "doctor-patient relationship" because they represent exceptions rather than the rule.

This book is exceedingly interesting—not because it offers anything new in fact or radically different in thought—but because it presents the views of a thoughtful physician and teacher in an area of controversy which, surprisingly enough, has been only sparingly fructified by liberal medical thought.

JOSEPH HIRSH

U. S. Public Health Service

Tuberculosis and Social Conditions in England: With Special Reference to Young Adults. By P. D'ARCY HART and G. PAYLING WRIGHT. London: National Association for the Prevention of Tuberculosis, 1939. Pp. vii + 165. 3s.

One of the most significant achievements in the field of public health during the past fifty years has been the increasing control of tuberculosis

evidenced by a steadily decreasing mortality rate. But shortly after 1920, the Medical Officer of Health for the County of London pointed out that the death rate from respiratory tuberculosis among young adults (15-24 years of age), especially young women, had practically ceased to decline. Analysis of the data for the entire country showed a situation similar to that in London, and by 1933 the retardation in the decline in the mortality from respiratory tuberculosis among young adults was regarded as one of the major problems in combating tuberculosis.

The authors of this book seek for the causes of the set-back in the improvement in health by a statistical analysis of concomitant changes in social and economic conditions. The analysis is divided into two parts. The first surveys the trend in the mortality rates from respiratory tuberculosis for the entire country, extending as far back into the last century as available data permit in conjunction with the trend in real wages, substandard housing, and the proportion of persons in industry. The second part is an intensive examination of differences in mortality rates among the county boroughs (urban administrative areas) of England and selected indices of social conditions—migration, the percentage of persons receiving poor relief, the percentage of the population living more than two per room, and a social index based on the occupational distribution of the population.

The principal methods of analysis are graphic comparisons of time series and correlation. The authors suggest that the check in the decline in mortality from respiratory tuberculosis among young adults may be accounted for by the check in the rate of improvement in the standard of living which occurred about 1900; this was accompanied by an increasing proportion of young women entering gainful employment. Of the local conditions, substandard housing showed the highest correlation with high death rates.

The pitfalls in the statistical analysis of time series are well known and need not be elaborated here. The authors are fully aware of these, and exercise caution in drawing their conclusions. If the positive results appear meager in comparison with the labor involved in the statistical calculations, it should be attributed to the nature of the data and not to the authors, who have handled a difficult statistical problem in a competent manner.

HAROLD F. DORN

U. S. Public Health Service

Persons Admitted to the Cleveland State Hospital, 1928-1937. By HOWARD WHIPPLE GREEN. Cleveland: Cleveland Health Council, 1939. Pp. iv + 38.

The chief contribution of this study of "insane persons" admitted to the Cleveland State Hospital is the attempt to show the relationship of the more important psychoses to economic status. For this purpose the families of the Cleveland five-city area are classified into economic tenths on the basis of monthly rentals by census tracts of residence. Since neither the size nor the age composition of the families is controlled, however, the results, while roughly checking with general knowledge of distributions, are crude. The

analysis of the data is confused by the frequent use of all admissions instead of first admissions only. It is to be hoped that a more carefully controlled analysis of the data will follow.

ELLEN WINSTON

Meredith College

Human Nature in the Light of Psychopathology. By KURT GOLDSTEIN. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1940. Pp. x+258. \$2.50.

Drawing upon his long experience with patients who have sustained brain injuries, the author presents, in a few short lectures, his conclusions concerning normal personality structure. The basic method, though it is not explicitly stated as such, is that of inferring what is "natural" by contrasting his patients with normals. Beginning with some astute criticisms, from the point of view of a Gestaltist, of the "atomistic" method in psychology, he ends with some observations upon the individual and the "we," concluding that the former is "primary to" the latter. This ambitious procedure is not rendered more convincing by a set of terms which will strike most American readers as grandiose and vague, and by tendencies toward exaggeration and dogmatism.

Both the flavor and the argument are not unfairly represented by the following sequence of excerpts, most of which are repeated in nearly every chapter: "A normal person . . . [possesses the] capacity for abstraction. . . . The abnormal person is either wholly incapable . . . or less capable of it. . . . The organism has definite potentialities, and because it has them it has the need to actualize them. . . . The capacity for abstract behavior is man's highest capacity. . . . It is the basic tendency of the organism to actualize itself in accordance with its nature." What is revealed about human nature from the study of psychopathology is thus that man strives to come to terms with the world in the best possible manner, i.e., with the aid of the abstract attitude, i.e., by the delaying of concrete action till after "imagination," or a consideration of "what is possible," has made possible an optimum structuring of the whole situation. To this reviewer, the book is on the level of the least satisfying portions of the author's earlier work, *The Organism*.

THEODORE M. NEWCOMB

Bennington College

Über Sinn und Sinnlosigkeit des Lebens: Auf Grund von Gesprächen mit geretteten Selbstmördern. By MARGARETHE V. ANDICS. Vienna: Gerold & Co., 1938. Pp. 175.

This book is better than its title. Although it deals with the question "To be or not to be?" it is a scientific treatise. It contains an analysis of 100 attempted suicides brought to the Vienna University clinic. Dr. Andics obviously succeeded in establishing rapport with the patients through sympathetic understanding. The stenographic interview material is striking. The age, sex, and occupational distribution of the cases coincides with a previous

statistical study of 2,371 Viennese cases performed by R. Delanoy. The 100 cases may, therefore, claim representativeness for Vienna. And Austria, which has the world's highest suicide rate, has a special significance for suicide studies.

Dr. Andic probes into motives. Although she knows psychoanalysis, she is not primarily interested in analyzing the cases in terms of unconscious mechanisms of guilt feelings and inverted aggressive tendencies. She focuses at the "ego aspect" of personality and conditioning social situations accounting for frustrations.

We know the general factors making for suicide: broken homes, denial of love and incapacity to love, lack of friendship and communal ties, lack of recognition for work, anxieties of the unemployed, of the socially over-aged and competitively underprivileged, unfulfilled claims for honor and status, and the subsequent crisis of self-appraisal. Dr. Andic's reports of the cases show such factors at work.

The fruitfulness of the study lies in its approach: it combines good sociological conceptualization with a differential psychology. Its limitation is that the author does not utilize the French and American literature.

H. H. GERTH

University of Wisconsin

Social and Biological Aspects of Mental Disease. By BENJAMIN MALZBERG. Utica, N. Y.: State Hospitals Press, 1940. Pp. v+360. \$2.50.

For those who are acquainted with Malzberg's publications, this book contains little that is new, but the collection of many of his major papers is a decided convenience as well as evidence of the importance of his contribution to the statistical study of mental disease. The problems discussed include trends in mental disease; the relation of age, urban-rural environment, marital status, nativity, race, birth order, economic factors, and education to mental disease; life tables for patients with mental disease; and insulin treatment of dementia praecox cases. All data are from the records of admissions to New York Civil State hospitals.

One cannot dispute Malzberg's findings for New York State, but his conclusions with regard to trends suffer from the lack of corroborative data for other states. Associated with this lack is the incompleteness of the list of citations to the literature in the special field of analysis. Methodologically it seems regrettable to the reviewer that total rates throughout the book are based on the entire population instead of the more satisfactory base of persons 15 years of age and over.

Social and Biological Aspects of Mental Disease will be highly useful to the student of social problems as a careful statistical analysis of the problem of mental disease in one state.

ELLEN WINSTON

Meredith College

- Motion Pictures in Adult Education.* By T. R. ADAM. New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1940. Pp. 94. \$.75.
- The Museum and Popular Culture.* By T. R. ADAM. New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1939. Pp. 177. \$1.00.
- The Worker's Road to Learning.* By T. R. ADAM. New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1940. Pp. 162. \$1.25.
- Training for the Job: Vocational Education for Adults.* By FRANK ERNEST HILL. New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1940. Pp. 160. \$1.25.
- Rural America Reads: A Study of Rural Library Service.* By MARION HUMBLE. New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1938. Pp. 101. \$1.00.
- The Public Library—A People's University.* By ALVIN JOHNSON. New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1938. Pp. 85. \$1.00.
- Adult Education Councils.* By RUTH KOTINSKY. New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1940. Pp. 172. \$1.25.
- The Church and Adult Education.* By BERNARD E. MELAND. New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1939. Pp. 114. \$1.00.
- Training for Recreation: An Account of the In-Service Training Program, Division of Recreation, Works Progress Administration, October 1935–October 1937.* By DOROTHY J. CLINE. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939. Pp. 130. \$.60.
- Avocational Interest Patterns: A Study in the Psychology of Avocations.* By DONALD E. SUPER. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1940. Pp. xiv+148. \$2.25.

The fruit of the American Association for Adult Education's Studies in the Social Significance of Adult Education in the United States is well represented among the ten books mentioned in this review. Eight of the twenty-one studies published by the Association thus far are listed above, and, while the international situation has forced a modification of plans to conduct and publish some fifteen additional studies, the Association is to be commended for its already imposing record of accomplishment. Such volumes as those referred to in this review have given lay and professional readers information and perspective with reference to many specialized aspects of adult education, heretofore reported inadequately or neglected almost entirely in the literature of the field.

The versatility and competence of the research staff of the Association is nowhere better indicated than in the three volumes by T. R. Adam. Mr. Adam, currently serving with his regiment, the Scots Guards, has done a most effective job on the three fields covered by his research, particularly in his *The Worker's Road to Learning* where he not only describes existing programs for workers in the lower income groups, but also presents clearly and fairly the issues currently dividing its leaders. Among these the

question of whether public monies should be expended in support of workers' education is especially well-considered.

In a less controversial area Adam finds under way a revitalized program of museum education which owes its new life to a growing recognition of the value of museums as "powerful instruments of popular education," useful as "modern weapons in the struggle for popular enlightenment." Methods and practices successfully employed by museum authorities in the achievement of such purposes are described.

In the volume on *Motion Pictures and Adult Education* chief emphasis is placed upon problems involved in the production and use of educational films. Only incidentally are film sources suggested or recommendations as to quality made. A broader study dealing with other types of visual aid materials would have been helpful.

Frank Hill's illuminating study of vocational education for adults should be required reading for every school administrator, and merits careful consideration by every student of the unemployment problem. Hill pulls no punches when he charges a "lack of vision, persistence, and audacity in the development of adult (vocational) training by the schools," but his practical suggestions directed toward the more efficient coordination of existing services prove him no carping critic. By his capable reporting of outstanding training and counseling programs now in operation, Hill provides a valuable and much needed handbook for professional workers in the field of vocational education.

Miss Humble's *Rural America Reads* not only offers evidence to substantiate its declarative title, but also suggests that rural America would read more if present facilities were not so inadequate. The development of reading courses, the strengthening of state library agencies, and the role of the rural librarian as an educational leader in the community are other topics dealt with in this study.

A less restricted treatment of the public library in relation to adult education is contributed by Alvin Johnson, retiring president of the American Association. In his accustomed thorough but unpedantic fashion the writer defines the adult educational functions of the public library narrowly enough to exclude the free entertainment services demanded by latest fiction-hunters or word-contest participants. Moreover, he makes no effort to hide his belief that librarians, and especially reader's advisers, are more than keepers of books. The ideal of "pure librarianship" ignores the need for educational leadership in a program of library service to the whole community—a genuine people's university.

In the field of community organizations the formation and functioning of council groups has become an important area for study. Miss Kotinsky's study of *Adult Education Councils* reports experience and poses problems which can be generalized and applied to other types of council organizations. The Chapter on "Problems of Organization and Finance" is particularly valuable.

Mr. Meland's volume on *The Church and Adult Education* gives ample evidence of a growing awareness among church leaders of the need for adult

educational programs in areas other than what might be called purely religious or doctrinal instruction. Church-sponsored forums in which world affairs and domestic problems are discussed, music and drama groups, handicraft clubs, and even full-fledged adult schools are reported by Mr. Meland. In the face of such varied programs the issue between individualistic and social education, which the author presents in his final chapter, seems a little immaterial and academic.

Dorothy Cline gives us an account of the in-service training program offered by the Division of Recreation, Works Progress Administration, over a two-year period from October, 1935 to October, 1937. The book *Training for Recreation* provides a wealth of experience on which to base the further efforts of established agencies for which Miss Cline pleads. Many of the technical details with reference to WPA administration might have been eliminated, but the chapters on "Training Methods" and "Aids to Training" should prove helpful to workers in the field. The "Bibliography on Recreation Training" lists WPA publications as well as other recently published source materials.

Using a technique already demonstrated in the measurement of vocational interests, Mr. Donald E. Super reports the technique and results of a study of *Avocational Interest Patterns*, with the suggestion that through the use of such a technique vocational and leisure-time guidance may become more enlightened. The problem is clearly stated, the research methods employed are fully described, and, assuming faith in the statistical legerdemain which passes for scientific method in the measurement of attitudes and interests, the conclusions are defensible. In any event the writer and possibly the reader end up with two new categories—"vocational avocations" and "non-vocational avocations," of which the former have value in diagnosing vocational interests. It is learned further that "the avocation a person chooses depends on his needs in a given situation." Aid to the guidance worker in determining these needs will have to come from other sources—non-statistical, perhaps.

PAUL H. SHEATS

University of Wisconsin

Investigating Library Problems. BY DOUGLAS WAPLES. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press., 1939. Pp. xv+116. \$1.00.

This pamphlet is devoted to an analysis and critical appraisal of social research techniques as adapted to the field of library problems. It includes an appraisal of evidence and ways of gathering it, methods of sampling analysis of the separate elements, and synthetic interpretation of data after it is gathered. Data supplied from personal sources, documentary evidence, and methods of historical criticism are briefly considered. The pamphlet includes six tables and a selected bibliography in the field of social research as most closely pertains to library problems.

It is maintained that "present knowledge of library processes and their relation to the values of different sorts of reading to different sorts of readers is very incomplete." Many accepted assumptions in evaluating library serv-

ice are regarded inadequate. A book selection based on a knowledge of the threshold of literary excellence a community will tolerate is preferable to simply purchasing books to meet reader demand. Waples concludes that there probably is no better way of determining library excellence than by describing and measuring "the extent of changes produced in readers by some one type of library influence."

The reader of this publication is led to the assumption that students of librarianship need to give more attention to library work as a science, and to scientifically acceptable methods of measuring and evaluating their service.

This pamphlet should be of particular interest to librarians and to social statisticians.

A. F. WILEDEN

University of Wisconsin

Statistics Applied to Education and Psychology. By CLARENCE T. GRAY and DAVID F. VOTAW. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1939. Pp. x+278. \$3.25.

This is a textbook for a first course in statistics for students in Education and Psychology, chiefly the former; and the topics, illustrations, and exercises are chosen in harmony with that purpose. In addition to the topics universally treated in elementary statistics texts in this field there are sections on the Spearman prophecy formula, the correlation ratio, contingency correlation, biserial correlation, and partial and multiple correlation. Tetrachoric r is not included. The book is confined entirely to classical statistics. The exposition is clear, thorough, and, within the limits of large sample theory, correct. Most of the formulas are given without proofs, as is necessary in an elementary text. The book is free from the amateurish interpretations frequently found in books of this class.

Whatever faults the book has it has in common with substantially all other books of its class. One of these seems to the reviewer to be the treatment of reliability before the discussion of correlation, so that the general case (involving correlation) can not be adequately presented in the first approach. A second is the omission of the simplest and most useful formula for the standard error of the difference between means in a matched group experiment,

$$\sigma_{m_x - m_y} = \frac{\sigma_{x-y}}{\sqrt{N-1}}$$

and the related fault of assigning to Lindquist's formula for the standard error of the difference between means an incorrect interpretation (p. 193). Finally, the reviewer feels that even elementary texts in statistics should take some notice of the theory of small samples, which is now receiving so much attention.

These authors have chosen to stay entirely within the conventional limits of classical statistics; and within that area they have made a very readable,

clear, and sound presentation of the subject, one of the best that has ever come to the reviewer's attention.

CHAS. C. PETERS

Pennsylvania State College

Statistical Procedures and Their Mathematical Bases. By CHARLES C. PETERS and WALTER R. VANVOORHIS. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1940. Pp. xiii + 516. \$4.50.

This book attempts to explain the mathematical origins of many of the better known statistical techniques in terms "that persons with comparatively little mathematical training can easily follow." It bridges the gap between the ordinary elementary statistical text and the primary mathematical sources from which many of the statistical techniques were originally obtained.

In order to overcome the reader's deficiency in calculus, a complete chapter is devoted to the interpretation and computation of differentiation and integration. The book presents the usual methods for measurement of central tendency, dispersion, and correlation, but is unique in the sense that it outlines many of the less familiar methods for measuring relationship, e.g., biserial correlation, tetrachoric correlation (cosine pi formula), and mean square contingency correlation. Peters and VanVoorhis present the epsilon technique for testing the significance of the correlation ratio. Another unusual contribution is a chapter on multiple factor analysis. Similar to the previous edition of this book, there is an excellent chapter on the reliability of differences as well as one on the normal probability curve. The technique of "controlled experimentation" is reviewed in some thirty pages. Every chapter devoted to a description of technique refers also to the possible bias inherent in the technique, and in its application. Methods are usually presented for correcting each kind of bias.

The reviewer believes this book to be one of the outstanding contributions to the field of statistical literature. Its presentation is lucid, comprehensive and extraordinarily stimulating to the teacher as well as to the practicing statistician. The reviewer would heartily recommend its use as both a classroom and reference text.

Tables of the normal probability integral, distribution of Student's t , distribution of ϵ^2 when the true value is zero, values of P for the chi-square, first power r 's corresponding to Tetrachoric r 's in widespread classes, and predicted location of an individual in a dependent measurement from his standing in an independent one, are presented.

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